THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

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ART. I. *Travels in the Ottoman Empire, Egypt, and Persia;* undertaken by Order of the Government of France, during the first six Years of the Republic, by G. A. Olivier, Member of the National Institute, of the Society of Agriculture of the Department of the Seine, &c. &c. Illustrated by Engravings. Vols. I. and II. Translated from the French. 4to. with Atlas, 2l. 12s. 6d. Boards; or in 2 Vols. 8vo. with Atlas. 1l. 6s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Rees, &c.

WITH the progress of science and the diffusion of knowlege, the spirit of inquiry is roused and enlarged: new investigations are pursued with eagerness; and accounts of the same objects by different writers are compared with interest and weighed with attention. Circumstances which one observer had overlooked, or had regarded as trivial, are anxiously treasured up by another. The taste, judgment, and opportunities of different reporters give rise to varied narratives; the physiognomist of manners feasts on the multiplied features of resemblance or contrariety; and the philosopher exults in the accumulation of facts and the developement of truth.

This is a pleasing picture: but it likewise suggests its reverse. Writings have multiplied more than ideas; one author has tamely borrowed from another; and much manual and mental industry has been expended in preparing libraries of useless, or perhaps of disgusting, repetitions.

The once happy country of the Greeks, destined, we trust, to survive the dominion of its oppressors, has exercised the pens of many learned and accomplished travellers. Of these, the last who solicited our notice was the lively but too rhetorical Sonnini; and in the company of his more sedate country-man Olivier, we have again traversed the streets of Constantinople and the islands of the Archipelago. In a few instances, when conscious that he could advance nothing new, he has referred, with laudable candour, to the works of his predecessors: but a more intimate acquaintance with their contents would probably have induced a less sparing recur-

rence to the same expedient, and would have diminished the size more than the reputation of this portion of his Travels. Let this consideration form our excuse, if we forbear to dwell on many particulars which are already known, and confine our extracts and remarks to circumstances of less notoriety.

The traveller thus introduces himself to his readers:

'A celebrated author has said that travels ought to be written in the manner of history, and not in that of romance *: he has proved to us in a clear, precise, and energetic style, that subjects the most serious, and discussions the most important, might interest every class of readers, and still please more than the flowery style, the romantic episodes, and the exaggerated or false descriptions of most travellers.

'Penetrated, like him, with this truth, I have, in the following narrative, avoided all singular anecdotes, all humourous stories, more fit to amuse than instruct. I was not willing to employ those over-brilliant colours which may be captivating for a moment, but the effect of which is transient. The sight of a deserted field, covered with myrtles, or that of a garden confusedly planted with date and orange trees, could never inflame my imagination; and I have frequently surveyed, without astonishment, truncated capitals and scattered fragments of columns.

'Not but I have been struck by the beauty of situations; not but the aspect of DELOS and of ATHENS, of ALEXANDRIA and of BABYLON, has drawn from me sighs. I never contemplated the BOSPHORUS, the PROPONTIS, and the HELLESPONT, without being moved, without excusing CONSTANTINE, and without saying to myself, that Nature would have done every thing for these countries, had she not at the same time placed there the plague, and a fanatic people, enemies to the arts and sciences.'

The tenor of M. Olivier's narrative frequently reminds us of these plain and manly pretensions: but the public taste may, perhaps, require an occasional sprinkling of ornament or adventure, a greater diversity of anecdote, or more exuberance of sentiment. Having sketched, with a rapid though discriminating pencil, the various impressions produced on his mind by a survey of the principal countries through which his route was directed, he thus concludes his Introduction:

'On our arrival at CONSTANTINOPLE, we requested a passport from the agent of the European power which covered the sea with its ships: it was refused to us. This refusal procured us the advantage of seeing ATTICA, the Isthmus of CORINTH, the Gulf of LEPANTO, and the Islands of ITHACA, CEPHALONIA, and CORFU; but it was, perhaps, the cause of the death of my colleague. At ANCONA, BRUGUIERE sunk under a disorder occasioned by the fatigues of a long journey, and the sudden grief of having lost a brother in the very country where we had just landed.

'* VOLNEY, *Voyage en Syrie et en Egypte.*'

'BRUGUIERE

'BRUGUIERE will long be mourned by his friends: he will incessantly be regretted by him who had such frequent occasion to appreciate the qualities of his heart, to admire the resources of his head, and the depth of his knowlege; by him who would have stood so much in need of his assistance for the publication of the interesting articles of natural history resulting from these travels. No one had gone deeper than BRUGUIERE into the class so difficult, so numerous, and so diversified, of worms, mollusca, and conchylia. He had applied himself by times to the study of botany, and he was no stranger to the other parts of natural history. It is much to be lamented that an astonishing memory and the greatest facility of expressing himself had made him neglect to note down his observations, and had even, at all times, rendered him very idle with respect to writing.

'Although deprived of my coadjutor for the particular publication of the articles of natural history inedited or little known, I shall not the less unremittingly employ myself about them as soon as the historical part shall be in a state of greater forwardness, and a general peace shall again promote, among us, a brisker sale of works of literature.

'The taste of BRUGUIERE, his sickly state, and his decided predilection for a retired and quiet life, not having permitted him, in the course of these travels, to apply himself to the same kind of study that I did, and to transport himself to all the places where observations were to be made, and facts to be collected, I was obliged to undertake alone that part of the travels which relates to the manners, the customs, and the laws of the nations that we visited. In order to render it more interesting, I neglected not to cast my eye towards our political and commercial relations. Geography, both ancient and modern, geoponics, and general physics, must necessarily at the same time have fixed my attention; and if I have not imparted to my labours all the interest of which they were susceptible, it is because the powers of man, as is well known, always fall far short of his wishes.

'I must here express my gratitude to Citizens RUFIN, DANTAN, and FRANQUINI, whom I for a long time consulted at CONSTANTINOPLE, and who were ever ready to reply to my questions relative to the customs and laws of the country. The last two even carried their complaisance so far as to procure me the means of interrogating the best-informed Turks of the capital, and to serve as interpreters between them and me, whenever I wanted them. I am also indebted to some merchants and commissaries of commercial relations, whom I shall consider it my duty to name, for information respecting the trade and productions of the LEVANT; lastly, I am indebted to Mr. JOHN HERATHIUS, an Armenian physician and priest, born at ISPAHAN, for some details relative to the history of the intestine wars of PERSIA.'

MM. Olivier and Bruguière were appointed by the Executive Provisional Council, in 1792, to travel into Turkey, Egypt, and Persia; and to communicate the results of their inquiries

relative to the geography, natural history, agriculture, commerce, and the political arrangements of these countries. That their plans of travel were frequently thwarted or retarded is frankly avowed, and should not surprize us when we reflect on the storms by which France was then convulsed. Yet the work now presented to the public contains a series of miscellaneous observations suggested by their progress from Paris to Constantinople, by their long *séjour* in the latter city, their excursions in its environs, their visit to Ghemlek, the Dardanelles, Troas, Tenedos, Lesbos, Scio, several of the small Greek islands, and lastly to Candia, or Crete.

Amply furnished with written and verbal instructions, the travellers took their departure from Paris on the 7th of November 1792: but, owing to unforeseen delays, they did not quit the French coast till the 29th of April 1793. On their passage to Constantinople, which lasted 23 days, they experienced the discomforts of sea-sickness, a crowded vessel, and officers notorious for their insolence and extortion. The disrespect manifested for the French name by certain Mussulmans, Russians, and Austrians, is next duly recorded. Having paid this allowable tribute to that nationality from which few Frenchmen are exempt, M. Olivier traces, with boldness and precision, those features of character which distinguish the Mussulmans, Greeks, Armenians, and Jews of Constantinople. The subject was worthy of a separate chapter in the writer's best manner; and it has obtained this distinction.—We extract a short specimen:

'The Jews present themselves here under colours far more unfavourable than in EUROPE. More ignorant, more poor, more fanatic, they give themselves up to every kind of trade and to all professions, even the very lowest. Few among them are physicians, droguemans, or men of business: not one is a cultivator. All trade to them is good if it yield a profit, however trifling it may be. The rich practise usury, lend money on pledges at an interest of two or three per cent. by the month, and even more according to circumstances. They are brokers, bankers, or traders. The Turkish custom-house officers make use of them for valuing goods and collecting the duties.

'As austere in their manners as the Armenians, as greedy after gain, less delicate, less honest when they deal with a man of a different religion, the Jews live among each other, occupy remote quarters, and tremble at the sight of a Mussulman. Their anti-social religion will always separate them from other nations, and will insulate them, in a town, from the other inhabitants, as long as they shall be sufficiently ignorant to believe the laws of their legislator, and the puerile precepts of their rabbis, emanated from the Divinity.'

M. Olivier

M. Olivier estimates the inhabitants of Constantinople and its environs at upwards of 500,000; and he remarks that most of them are supported by employments connected with the government:

'But, if Constantinople profited at the same time of the advantages given it by its happy position between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean, between Europe and Asia; if it turned to account the extent, the safety, and the convenience of its harbour, so suitable for favouring a great trade; if industry assumed a greater activity; if the objects of art were scattered throughout the whole empire and even beyond it; if the inhabitants sought in the culture of the lands the subsistence which they want, and the aliment of a part of the manufactories; in short, if they succeeded in putting a stop to the plague, that most destructive scourge of the human species; it is not to be doubted that this city would soon become of an immense extent and of a population perhaps too considerable.'

Without contemplating the disgusting picture of the seraglio, we shall only remark that M. Olivier denies the common relation that a handkerchief is presented, or thrown, to the female slave who pleases the Sultan: while he asserts that the office of strangling condemned victims devolves on the *Capidgis-bachis*, a sort of chamberlains, and not on the mutes, as has been usually alleged.

The nautical reader will peruse with pleasure the sensible observations on the Turkish navy, and the harbour of Constantinople.—We are unwilling to with-hold the following paragraph:

'The Turks, in general, are not fond of the sea; they cannot conform to the active life which a seaman is obliged to lead; they cannot accustom themselves to the privations which that profession requires; they commonly prefer making use of the Greeks, who display, in this line as in every other, an intelligence and an activity, of which the Turks are not capable. The Greeks manœuvre tolerably well, and conduct their little vessels with much skill in the seas with which they are acquainted; but they have not the smallest theory of navigation: almost all of them navigate without a compass, steer only by the knowledge of the mountains and coasts, bear up for every wind that blows somewhat strong, and go and wait for fine weather in the nearest port.'

While awaiting farther orders from the new government, M. Olivier made various excursions from the capital of the Ottoman empire; and he seems to have occupied his leisure in the laudable employment of collecting local information. His plain statement of neglected agriculture, of lonely and barren fields in the neighbourhood of a large and populous city, and in one of the finest climates in the world, more powerfully impresses us with an abhorrence of despotism, than many vo-

lumes of declamation.—The want of cleanliness, too, must be deplorable, when it excites the marked notice of a Frenchman:

'It may be conceived that the manner of living on the floor, on carpets or mats which cannot be swept, and which are neglected to be beaten or shaken, in wooden houses, in a hot climate, among a people who are scarcely acquainted with the use of linen, who keep on their garments during the night, and do not take them off in general till they are worn out, fleas, bugs, and all the vermin which adhere to the dirty and negligent man, must be extremely numerous; this too was what made us suffer most in the course of our travels, because it was impossible for us to secure ourselves against those insects when we were obliged to lie down in a place which was infested by them.'

This representation, however, scarcely agrees with the spirit of cleanliness manifested by the Turks in their frequent ablutions. Accurate or inaccurate, we gladly turn to a more pleasing trait of character. Such is the humanity of the Turks to the feathered tribes, that they neither kill nor drive away the flocks of turtle-doves and sparrows which feed on their corn; nor will they suffer a bird that has been shot to struggle with pain, but cut its throat the moment that they lay hold of it, insomuch that the French naturalists could with the greatest difficulty procure an entire bird from them.

The famous plane-tree of *Buyuk-déré* suggests a few notices: but the most important observation concerning it is, that 'the seven or eight trunks, of which it is formed, appear to have a common origin, and are all connected by their base.'

The present traveller is frequently on the look-out for extinguished volcanos, and, like most French naturalists, stumbles on them with wonderful facility: but we are old-fashioned and sober enough not to accumulate violence and combustion, when appearances do not evidently prove their agency. We regard, for example, the alleged indications of a burning mountain at the mouth of the Black Sea as very equivocal, while neither lava nor pumice-stone appears in the list. The island of *Prinkipos*, composed of *quartz*, *granite*, &c. &c. (we are left to conjecture the remaining ingredients) 'appeared to us (says the author) *entirely volcanic*.' *Chalkis*, we are told, has similar productions, and the soil presents *every where* indications of a volcano: yet the only mineral substances which are specified are, *a hard brittle rock*, *which appears ferruginous*, *and copper-ore*. When journeying to distant lands, in company with a Gallic traveller, it is more frequently our lot to trace symptoms of *extinguished modesty*; and though this hint is less pointedly applicable to the present writer than to others who might

might be named, yet we wish that he had withholden from his readers some passages which occur in the 10th and 11th chapter of his first volume.

As evils have their gradations, the following view of slavery derives interest from comparison:

'A person would have a false idea of slavery among the Turks and the Persians, were he to judge of it from that which the Europeans have established in their colonies, and above all from the accounts of the unfortunate captives of the coast of BARBARY, who have been made to undergo harsh treatment, and been tormented, in a thousand ways, in order to oblige them to embrace the Mussulman religion. In TURKEY and in PERSIA, slaves of both sexes, commonly purchased before the age or the period of puberty, are brought up in the religion of MAHOMET, and treated with the same kindness and almost with the same respect as the sons of the family. It seldom happens that a Turk sells again a slave with whom he is dissatisfied; he contents himself with threatening him and even with punishing him as he would punish a son. After a servitude more or less long, according as this Mussulman is a more or less exact observer of the precepts of MAHOMET, who fixes the period of slavery to nine years, he gives him his liberty, and marries him: almost always, at his death, his slaves become free, whether he may have been able to dictate his will, or because the heirs consider it their duty to follow his intention in this respect.

'When a master is a man of weight and attaches himself to any of his slaves, he neglects nothing for their education and advancement. For that purpose he employs his interest and his fortune, as he would do in regard to his own son; and it must be confessed that, in general, these slaves are more attached to their masters and serve them better, whether in their houses, or in battle, than their servants.

'No one is ignorant, that, in TURKEY, the art of pleasing a master, intelligence, boldness, and lastly money, lead to every thing, and carry a man rapidly to the first employments. Most of the pachas and great men of the empire, raised by fortune and intrigue, from the rank of slave or of simple private person to that which they occupy, are for all the Turks a spur ever active which animates and encourages them. In all administrative and military places, talents are held in no estimation; they are almost always useless, and even frequently dangerous.

'The prejudices of EUROPE, in regard to birth, not being known in the LEVANT, most of the Turks marry, without difficulty, their slaves, or give them in marriage to their sons. In like manner they give, without repugnance, their daughters in marriage to the male slaves with whom they are pleased; they grant them their freedom and procure them commissions, employments, or give them money to undertake a trade or exercise a profession.

'The prisoners whom the fate of war throws into the hands of the Turks, if they be not exchanged immediately after the battle, which is very seldom the case, or if they be not massacred, which more frequently happens, are slaves, and belong to those who have

taken them. They are sometimes carried to a considerable distance from the theatre of war, and there sold, in order that they may not make their escape, nor be exchanged. Those slaves, of more advanced age than the others, frequently refuse to renounce their religion; which is the reason that they do not then enjoy the same advantages as the Mussulman slaves, and that they are treated with less kindness. They are employed in the roughest and most degrading labours, and cannot hope to be set at liberty but by paying a ransom; which to them is almost always impossible, for they seldom have the means of communicating their situation to their family, and if they were sufficiently industrious to earn a little money, and economical enough to keep it, they would infallibly be stripped by their masters or by the other slaves, because a Mussulman thinks himself not bound to observe, in regard to a Christian or a Jew, an honest line of conduct in which he would be ashamed to fail towards a man of his own religion.'

The narrative of the fortunes of Paswan Oglou forms a striking episode, and reveals to the reflecting mind the increasing debility, we had almost said the approaching dissolution, of a government which has subsisted too long for the general welfare of civilized Europe.

M. Olivier's account of the plague is replete with accurate information and benevolent suggestions. In most cases, this dreadful malady is propagated by contact; and the author would insinuate that its appearance, as well as that of hydrophobia and syphilis, is never spontaneous. A dog, according to him, must be bitten by another animal afflicted with the disorder, before madness break out on him:—but *who* or *what* affected the first mad animal? The cause which once operated may operate again; and before pestilence and venereal taint could be communicated by contact, they must have existed.

In his review of the ecclesiastical and judicial establishments of the Ottoman Empire, M. Olivier very properly distinguishes the *Imans*, who serve the mosques, and the *Muèzins*, who ascend the minarets to summon the Mussulmans to prayer, from the members of the *Ulemas*, an august body of sacred magistrates, or doctors of the law, who enjoy so many privileges and so much influence. On the whole, we have seldom met with a more full and discriminating exposition of the respective provinces of the different constituted authorities, of the mode of distributing justice, and of the actual state of the military department in Turkey.

The 19th chapter, which chiefly relates to the trade of Constantinople, commences with the following observations:

'The little confidence inspired by a government too frequently unjust; the little solidity presented by the fortunes of private persons, the certainty of losing one's money if the man to whom it has been lent

lent die in an employment, or if he be punished with death for any misdemeanour, real or supposed; the tyranny which is every where exercised by those who are invested with power, the venality of the tribunals, the innumerable multitude of false witnesses—every thing in TURKEY inspires such a mistrust in affairs of commerce, that a man lends not his money but at a very high interest, and delivers not his goods on credit but at an exorbitant price. Very frequently even no business takes place if the creditor be not provided beforehand with a pledge above the value of the money which he has lent, or of the goods which he has delivered on credit. The interest of money must have risen in proportion to the risks that the lender had to run; it is generally from eight to ten per cent. in regard to Europeans; from fifteen to twenty per cent. in regard to Mussulman, Jew, Armenian, or Greek merchants; it is at thirty, forty, and even fifty per cent. in regard to the Turks who belong to the government. To private persons money is lent at twenty-five or thirty per cent. but almost always in towns, pledges are required for the security of the debt.

'Honesty, however, is not entirely banished from the Ottoman Empire. The European merchants know that the countryman almost always performs without difficulty the engagements which he has contracted, that the man of business is generally the slave of his word, that the trader seldom fails to discharge his obligations when his payments become due. If probity alone be the instigator of the first, the others are anxious to preserve a spotless reputation which may increase their credit, multiply their operations, and facilitate all the affairs that they undertake.

'It is with the pachas and the great that one ought to avoid to deal otherwise than with ready money, because it is they who shew the most dishonesty, and who almost always make an improper use of their authority. As much as one may be confident with the plain man who hears and follows the voice of his conscience, with the merchant always moved by self-interest which commands him to appear an honest man, so much ought one to mistrust the man of power whom intrigue has led to the first employments, who, deaf to the call of honour, thinks that he can skreen himself from the eye of justice.

'I shall not here establish a parallel between the different nations which inhabit the LEVANT, and which are subject to the Ottoman government. The individuals who compose them, accused of being equally covetous, equally cunning, equally knavish, nevertheless, perform their engagements when one has taken with them suitable precautions. If probity do not incline them to it, fear at least determines them, because the Turks are always there to impose on them an exaction.

'As for the Mussulmans, one finds, in general, among them more sincerity: one may, in general, trust more to their word. We should consider them as the most honest and the most estimable of all, did they not shew themselves unjust towards tributary subjects: did not the contempt which they have for them induce them to violate in regard to them the law of nations, to make them undergo humiliations, and cover them not unfrequently with disgrace.

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'It is to the government alone, founded on an oppressive religion, that we must impute the knavery of some, the tyranny of others, the vices of all. The Greeks, the Armenians, and the Jews, deprived of the rights of citizenship, excluded from civil employments and from military service, strangers to the religion on which every thing rests, obliged to redeem every year their head by a disgraceful tax, threatened incessantly with the loss of their life or their fortune, and weak and unprotected, have, from their very infancy, learnt to dissemble, to give way to the smallest shock, to withdraw themselves from force by address, from violence by submission. They have been obliged to be false from habit, cringing and vile from fear, cunning and knavish from the necessity of living and existing.

'The Mussulmans, vain of their superiority, insolent towards unarmed slaves, proud of belonging to a religion which inspires contempt for all those who are not admitted into it; fanatic, ferocious, and unjust through the effect of that religion; tolerated in the extortions which they exercise towards tributary subjects; emboldened even by a government which dreads those whom it oppresses; the Mussulmans, like their ancestors, would possess a disposition for greatness, heroism, and robbery, had they preserved their morals, their courage, and all their fanaticism. But at this day the sale of all employments and the precarious tenure of them make all private persons avaricious, and convert all the depositaries of authority into oppressors. Justice is venal, because the cadis have been laid under contribution; the venality of the judges has produced false witnesses; religious zeal is relaxed, courage is worn out, immorality has crept in every where: one may say boldly that it has at the present day reached its highest pitch in the towns.

'The law of confiscations has frequently occasioned to be considered as criminal men whom birth, chance, or industry had enriched. That which assigns to the sultan the property of those who receive from him any pay whatever, must, like the other, necessarily have clogged the operations of commerce, inspired fears, and most contributed to the excessive rate of money.'

At page 228, we meet with a curious instance of Turkish mystery:

'According to the instructions which were given to us before our departure, we made some efforts to learn the proceedings which are employed in the dressing and in the dyeing of morocco: we offered money in order to be permitted to follow the process made use of in the manufactories; but we found every where a resistance of which we did not imagine the Turks capable. Although we entered several times into their manufactories, it was impossible for us to discover whether it is to the quality of the skins which they employ, or to their proceedings, that we must attribute the beauty of the moroccos of the Levant. Among the substances which we perceived, are lime, sumac, the galnut, the cup of the velani oak, dog's-dung, madder root, cochineal, kermes, the rind of the pomegranate, and the seed of a rhamnus, different from that which yields the seed of Avignon.'

In

In the concluding chapter of the first volume, the author, with his usual good sense and judgment, urges the propriety of establishing a school of droguemanship at Marseilles:—but we are at a loss to reconcile the following assertion with other parts of the work, and with the concurring testimonies of travellers: 'The Mussulman has almost always for the European the respect with which he thinks that he may dispense towards the man who, born in Turkey, appears to him no more than a slave in disguise.'—If so, why assume even the dress of the disguised slave, in order to experience civil treatment?

On the 26th of November 1794, M. Olivier and his associate embarked in a Ragusan vessel, and set sail for the Dardanelles.—At *Ghemelek*, where they touched, they added to their collections in natural history two non-descript *bulimi*, which are characterized in the text, and figured in the plates. Notwithstanding the lateness of the season, they observed the ever-green Virgin's-bower, and a new species of *Spartium*, designated by Ventenat *parviflorum*. The woods were adorned with the *andrachne* and *arbutus*, loaded with flowers and fruit.

In the short account of the Dardanelles, the Hellespont, the neighbouring towns and their productions, we discover little that is deserving of particular notice; except, perhaps, the mode of killing partridges practised by the Greeks:

'In the environs of the Dardanelles, I was one day witness of the manner in which the Greeks shoot partridges, less with a view of procuring themselves an excellent article of game, than for the purpose of diminishing the number of the enemies of their crops. This sport consists in carrying a gun and a sort of banner rolled up, striped with very lively colours, somewhat similar to a harlequin's jacket. As soon as they perceive at a distance a covey of partridges, they unroll the banner, and approach by degrees those birds till they have got within gunshot of them. The fowler thrusts into the ground the staff of the banner, and, through an aperture made on purpose, he fires on the partridges, which are so terrified, that they squat and suffer themselves to be killed, the one after the other, rather than fly away. The greatest difficulty the fowler experiences, is to perceive them; for that purpose, he turns round them, constantly concealed behind the banner, and as soon as he perceives one of them, he fires at it, and goes on in the same manner till he has destroyed the whole covey. This sport is practicable, as is seen, only in cultivated plains, and on lands not much covered with herbage and bushes.'

Respecting the Greeks of Tenedos, we have these remarks:

'At Tenedos, the Greeks have not that gaiety which they are seen to possess in the other islands: silent and melancholy in the streets, they scarcely dare take a little recreation in their own houses: they avoid noisy pleasures which would infallibly draw on them the attention of the Turks, and awaken all their cupidity; but when

they can without danger, they give themselves up to a sort of extravagant joy and delirium. The coast of TROY is frequently the theatre of their orgies or the field of their pleasures: thither they repair on the occasion of a wedding or of a festival, and there, under the plane tree or the oak, they pass the whole day in dancing, singing, eating, and drinking.

'The Greek, under whose roof we lodged, thought, in his capacity of agent of the Republic, that he might, before our departure, give at his house an entertainment, to which he invited the principal inhabitants of the town. A great number of women of all ages also came thither. Wine was not spared: the musicians were numerous: the dancing, at first grave, slow, and in measure, was afterwards so quick, and so tumultuous among the men, that the floor partly gave way; but as no one was hurt, it continued not the less, on that account, in another room, and was prolonged to a late hour of the night. Bacchanalian songs succeeded amorous ditties, and singing gave place to bawling when the party had emptied a great number of flasks.

'However, the women, though gay, departed not from their usual reserve: there reigned among them the greatest decorum: their dancing was always grave; their songs continued to be soft and agreeable: they mixed not with the men, and neither participated in their inebriety nor in their delirium. Almost all the young ones were handsome: some among them struck us by their beauty; they might well be compared, from their features and their shape, to the most beautiful models that antiquity has transmitted to us.'

Scio is the subject of a satisfactory and very entertaining chapter: but we shall confine our extracts to the character of the inhabitants:

'The legislator who may wish to observe the influence of institutions and of laws on the morals, character, and industry of man, ought principally to turn his eye towards a people who, living under the same sky, on the same soil, professing the same religion, differ, nevertheless, from themselves to such a degree that they appear incognizable. After having crossed a little arm of the sea, I thought myself transported into another region, into another climate: I had seen the Greek bent under the yoke of the most frightful despotism: he was deceitful, rude, timid, ignorant, superstitious, and poor: here he enjoys a shadow of liberty; he is honest, civil, bold, industrious, witty, intelligent, and rich. Here I no longer find that mixture of pride and meanness which characterizes the Greeks of CONSTANTINOPLE, and of a great part of the LEVANT; that timidity, that cowardice, which is occasioned by perpetual fear, that bigotry which prevents no crime. What distinguishes the inhabitants of SCIO from the other Greeks, is a decided inclination towards commerce, a warm taste for the arts, a keen desire for enterprise; it is a sprightly, pleasant, epigrammatic wit; it is sometimes a sort of mad and burlesque gaiety, which has given rise to the following proverb: "*It is as uncommon to find a green horse, as a prudent Sciot.*"

'However

'However true may be the overstrained meaning of this proverb, in regard to a few inhabitants of Scio, there are a greater number who know how to combine the most circumspect prudence with the most lively and most amiable sprightliness. No other town in the Levant presents so great a mass of information; no other contains so many men exempt from prejudices, full of good sense and reason, and blessed with a head better organized.

'Some among them may, nevertheless, be reproached with a ridiculous pride, a misplaced fanaticism. We have seen fools find the gratification of their vanity in a rich portfolio, a fine house, or a numerous set of servants. The ignorant man, who had no personal titles to display in society, thought to be quit towards it in recalling to mind those of his ancestors. The struggle which exists between the two churches, has frequently given rise to scandalous scenes, of which the Turks alone have taken advantage; and the influence of the priesthood is, perhaps, too great in a country that wishes to apply itself to agriculture and commerce.

'Notwithstanding their grotesque dress, the women are more amiable, than those of the capital, because they are more courteous, more gay, more lively, and more witty. They are seen with tolerable freedom at their own home in presence of their relations, and they enjoy, more than elsewhere, a liberty which they seldom abuse. They spend, in all seasons, part of the day in singing and working, playing or amusing themselves before their houses: they make up to passengers, frequently speak to them first, without knowing them; aim at them a jest or an epigram; if the latter displease, pay them a delicate, witty compliment, if they have an agreeable manner, a prepossessing countenance. If you answer them in the same tone, the conversation begins aloud: you exert all your wit and gentility, you laugh, and you part from each other pleased and gratified.

'If you go to the esplanade, into the gardens, and round the town, you will meet, on Sundays and holidays, groups of young damsels, who stop you very frequently, play you a thousand pranks, ask you for money, offer you flowers and comfits: you may in like manner address yourself to them first, and begin with them by some pleasantry.

'But in this country every thing passes in conversation with the girls; and the married women are much more reserved than one would suppose at the first access. It is not that Scio does not resemble almost all the towns of Europe, and that amorous intrigues do not frequently occur; but scandal, at least, is rare: public prostitutes conceal themselves, and decorum reigns every where.

'More circumspect in regard to the Turks whom they meet, the women of Scio do not address themselves to them, nor do they answer their questions: they know that they would expose themselves to some brutality on their part, or at least to some indecent conversation. But they preserve in their presence that free air, that confident look, which is not to be seen even in the women of the capital.

'Whether easy circumstances and gaiety, under a beautiful sky, alike concur to give to women agreeable forms, regular features, soft

and slightly animated colours; or whether the Greek women have less degenerated here than elsewhere from their ancient beauty, it is certain that there are not to be found, in any other country of the LEVANT, so many beautiful women as at SCIO, and, nevertheless, subjugated by a bad taste; they make too great a use of red, white, and black, which, very far from adding to their charms, cause that softness to disappear, conceal that delicate complexion, destroy that bloom, which every where render women so agreeable and so captivating.

'Here they frequent the baths much more seldom than the Greek women of SMYRNA and CONSTANTINOPLE, and this, perhaps, is the reason why their beauty lasts longer. They attribute the whiteness of their teeth to the almost continual and general custom of having mastic incessantly in their mouth; but, perhaps, they owe this advantage still more to the dislike that they have to smoking, in which the others find an inexpressible pleasure.

'Economical and temperate in their family, the richest, as well as the poorest, shew an excessive love of gain. Those less gifted by fortune employ themselves in making stockings, caps, and purses, which they sell to passengers, or carry to their dealers. The rich women embroider handkerchiefs and all the linen in use among the Orientals; several have a frame in their own house, and work at some sort of silk or cotton stuff. Sweetmeats, conserves of roses and orange flowers, sirups of lemon and bergamot-citron, occupy a great number of women of all ages and of all conditions. It is generally in the country that they breed the silk-worm and spin cotton.'

The curious reader will likewise be gratified with a particular account of the gathering of mastic, and with descriptions of three shells, named *Bulimus denticulatus*, *Melania buccinoïdea*, and *Planorbis orientalis*.

From Scio, the travellers proceeded to *Tchesmé*, a small town of Asia, seated on the ruins of *Cyssus*:

'Geographers place at the head of a bay, two or three leagues to the north of TCHESME, the ancient ERYTHRÆ, celebrated for the oracles of the Sibyl; I chose to proceed thither on foot, while my colleague was purchasing at TCHESME, the provisions that we wanted. I left on the right the town and some chalky, calcareous hillocks; I traversed an uneven ground, fields in culture, hillocks uncultivated, and, after an hour's journey, I found myself in a plain that terminated at the bay of which I have just spoken. I saw, at a little distance from the sea, a spring rather copious, the water of which was harsh and burning: the environs presented marine salt. A poor building stood by the side of the spring: I was told that there are basins where a person may bathe; I wished to enter them: perceiving some Turks, I retired, and was proceeding towards the sea, when, a moment after, I saw two of them, with the yatagan in their hand, advancing towards me, threatening me and calling me *dog* and *infidel*. I had with me only a Greek servant, little capable of seconding me, though strong as HERCULES; but I had a sword-cane: this was better. I immediately unsheathed my weapon, and, in

in a firm and imposing voice, desired them to be told, that if they did not instantly retire, I would cause five hundred blows to be given them with a stick, in my presence, by the aga of TCHESME. This threat and, above all, my sword, made these Turks change their tone. "He is a madman, he is a Frenchman," said they to each other; "let us leave him alone."

'I did not think it prudent to go and see the ruins of ERYTHRÆ. I gathered several interesting plants, and returned to the harbour.'

So much solid matter has been pressed by M. Olivier into his pages, that, had we not already transgressed our accustomed limits, we should linger with him on Delos, Naxos, Cimolis, and Milo:—but, for various particulars respecting those islands, we must beg leave to refer our readers to the work.

The four chapters relative to Crete convey much circumstantial information, though in a strain that is seldom animated by striking incident or splendour of recital.

The collection of plates, which belong to this part of the publication, consists of one general and seven particular maps, of two engravings of the female costume in Scio and Argentiera, and of five which relate to objects in natural history. The representation of a Turkish burying-ground, planted with cypress-trees, requiring particular care in the execution, is not yet finished, but will be published with the next delivery.

Fidelity seems to be the chief merit of the translation: in which on almost every occasion, we remark the turn and even the arrangement of French phraseology. The expression *True it is* forms a notable exception, but it occurs so frequently as to produce a ludicrous effect. *Chicory* is used for *succory* or *endive*, *tribune* for *gallery*, and *breach* for *breccia*. We have heard of a translator who rendered *précipité per se* by *Persian precipitate*: but we trust that the remainder of this valuable work will not be *done into English* with such *precipitation*. MUIR.

ART. II. *Journal of the late Campaign in Egypt:* including Descriptions of that Country, and of Gibraltar, Minorca, Malta, Marmorice, and Macri: with an Appendix, containing Official Papers and Documents. By Thomas Walsh, Captain in His Majesty's 93d Regiment of Foot, &c. Illustrated by numerous Engravings of Antiquities, Views, Costumes, Plans, Positions, &c. 4to. pp. 400. 3 l. 3 s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1803.

THOUGH the tale of glory respecting the Egyptian expedition has been so frequently repeated, we still dwell on it without satiety: but to accompany the author of the elegant volume before us would be pleasant on any occasion; since his manner of describing the eventful scenes, in which he bore apart, bestows

stows on them an additional interest. The language of this work is also more correct and happy than that of any publication on this subject which we have yet had occasion to notice; the engravings (with one or two exceptions) are designed and executed in a style of superior merit; and the art of the printer has been exercised to add every embellishment of types and paper.—The maps and plans are particularly large and valuable *.

From the author's account of Gibraltar, a place so often described before, we shall make only the following extract; the first part of which applies to some recent occurrences in that garrison, and the remainder states an institution which deserves to be known and applauded:

'If water be scarce, wine, on the other hand, is in such abundance, and so cheap, that in no part of the world exist such repeated scenes of intoxication. It is indeed distressing to see whole bands of soldiers and sailors literally lying in the streets in the most degrading state of inebriety. *Drunkenness is no crime in the garrison*, except in those who are on duty; and every man coming off a working party is ordered to be paid eight pence on the spot, which he immediately proceeds to spend in a kind of bad wine, called blackstrap. Houses for the sale of this pernicious liquor are found at every step, and furnish no small part of the revenue.

'The situation of officers here, especially in time of war, is very melancholy; cooped up in a prison, from which it is impossible to stir, and with no other amusement or resource, but what they can find among themselves. I must, however, except the garrison library, which, to a mind susceptible or desirous of information, is an institution of the most useful and advantageous kind. A committee of officers is appointed, to whom the choice of the books is left; and in the selection none are admitted but the most approved productions. All interesting new publications are purchased, and likewise a regular succession of the best English papers. Every officer, on his arrival at Gibraltar, gives one week's pay to the fund, which constitutes him a subscriber, paying only the additional sum of four dollars annually.

* 'The work,' says Captain W. in his preface, 'is accompanied by forty-one plates, including upwards of fifty subjects, most of them from drawings made by the Author with the utmost attention to correctness. Taken in perfect security, and with all necessary deliberation; they are, at least, not the hasty sketches of a solitary traveller, who holds the pencil with a trembling hand; or the productions of reminiscence, executed in the retirement of the closet, from a few strokes made by stealth. For their fidelity, therefore, he can venture to pledge himself, however little merit in other respects they may be found to possess. The large map of the course of the Nile, the plans of the peninsula of Aboukir, the town of Alexandria, and the battle of the 21st of March, and the views of the city and castle of Cairo, the Author owes to the kindness of some officers of the highest character and abilities.'

annually. By means of this trifling contribution, the library is well supplied; and a new building is now erecting, better calculated for literary pursuits. This will be completed by the assistance of a separate subscription made a few years ago.'

In describing Minorca, Captain Walsh mentions a species of fortification newly adopted for the defence of the coast, which may deserve consideration at home; particularly at the present juncture:

'Near Fort George is Mount Stuart, standing at the entrance of the harbour, and defended by a small round tower, cannon-proof, and having a piece of heavy ordnance mounted on its top, which is flat. This gun being *en barbette*, and placed on a travelling carriage, can be used against any wished-for point. In the tower there is a guard of a sergeant and twelve men, who are always provided with ten days provision. Within the tower is a well, and the only entrance is by means of a ladder, so that this being drawn up, all access is very difficult. It is an excellent mean of defence, and every creek or bay in the island, where there is a possibility of making a descent, is defended by a tower of this description.'

From the account of Malta, we extract the subsequent particulars, in addition to our quotations from Lieutenant Anderson's journal, in our last Review:

'La Valette, the seat of government, is a very regularly built town. Its principal streets are wide and straight, well paved, and furnished with good footpaths. The buildings are all of freestone, with which the island abounds; and the numerous superb edifices and hotels, formerly belonging to the knights of the order, give to la Valette a superiority over any town of equal size. The two palaces of the grand master, adjoining each other, are fine structures. Their interiour seems to have been very magnificent, and still retains several marks of splendour, though they are much injured by dilapidation, and the greater part of the costly furniture has been taken away or destroyed. The council chamber is lined with the most beautiful gobelin tapestry, and the other apartments are adorned with paintings of the different actions and valiant exploits, which occurred during the memorable siege of the island by the Turks. Adjoining to the palace, and communicating with it, is the armoury, which was found in the best possible state on our taking possession of the place. It contains eighteen thousand stand of fire arms, independent of a variety of swords, spears, and other ancient weapons, all of which are very tastefully and neatly arranged.

'The churches are extremely numerous, and all very fine buildings. That of St. John, the patron of the order, is however far superiour to the rest. The roof is most beautifully sculptured, and adorned with some good paintings. "The grand altar," says Brydone, "is a piece of very curious and elegant marble; the pavement, in particular, is the richest in the world. It is composed entirely of sepulchral monuments (of persons belonging to the order) of the finest marbles, porphyry, and a variety of other valuable stones,

admirably joined together at an incredible expence, and representing, in a kind of Mosaic, the arms, insignia, &c. of the persons whose names they are intended to commemorate. In the magnificence of these and other monuments, the heirs of the grand masters, commanders, &c. have long vied with each other." Vol. II. p. 226.

'Water, which in a climate like this is so great a luxury, is found every where in abundance, and scarcely a street is without one fountain at least.

'The works round this town, and the adjoining places, at Floriana, Cottoniera, and Vittoriosa, are perhaps the most extensive of any in the world, and, as I before observed, extremely strong. They were, however, in many parts, and especially at Floriana, in a very ruinous state; owing to the little attention paid to them by the French, and to the very remiss administration of the late grand master, Hompesch, who is excessively disliked by the Maltese, and generally accused of having occasioned the overthrow of the order. These works are also nearly deprived of their guns; upwards of one hundred of the finest, and of the heaviest calibre, having been carried by the French to Egypt. A great number, however, still remain in the arsenals, and might be mounted on the ramparts with very little difficulty.'

The bay of Marmorice, the welcome refuge of our fleet from tempestuous weather, is elegantly described. We insert the author's account of an excursion which he made, to visit some antiquities in the neighbourhood of Macri:

'JANUARY the 30th.

'At eight this morning we left our ship, and went on shore, accompanied by the Capoutan Bey's dragoman, or interpreter. We staid in the town of Macri till eleven, when having procured, or rather pressed horses and a guide through the all powerful influence of our escort (a Janissary), we took the road towards the Grecian village of Kaya, where we arrived at one, after passing through a small Turkish town, situate in a large plain covered with fruit trees. This town was erected apparently with a view of keeping the neighbouring Greeks in awe.

'Kaya is placed on the slope of a hill, descending into the above mentioned plain, and consists of about three hundred houses, built at a distance from each other, and consequently covering a great extent of ground. We were here treated with all imaginable hospitality. Never was there a more striking contrast, than that between the manners of this enslaved people, and those of their despotic neighbours. It was towards evening when we left the place; at which time all the merry inhabitants, men, women, and children, were assembled in front of their miserable houses, the younger part gaily dancing to the sound of the *lera*. This instrument resembles the fiddle, but has only three strings, and produces a much shriller tone. It is played upon with a bow in the same manner, and is generally accompanied with the voice. Milton appears to have been acquainted with it in Italy, where it has the name of *ribecca*.

'When

'When the jocund rebecks sound,
To many a youth, and many a maid,
Dancing in the checker'd shade. L'ALLEGRO.

'They seemed unconscious of their misery, and a look of happiness and contentment appeared in the countenances of all around. But it is melancholy to think how rigorously they are treated, and how cruelly oppressed.

'The women are tall, handsome, and well made, and the easy elegance of the Grecian dress becomes them very well. They have not the absurd Turkish custom of concealing their faces, which, on the contrary, they seem to delight in displaying; and which would be pretty, if divested of the many little medals with which they are covered. After a better repast than we could possibly have expected, we left Kaya, much gratified by our excursion.

'JANUARY the 31st.

'Early this morning we went again to Macri, and wandered about the numerous ruins which surround it. These mostly consist of tombs and monuments, hewn out of the solid marble rocks, apparently with great labour and expence. From what we could collect, on inspection of the number and extent of the antiquities around the town, it must formerly have been of considerable magnitude, and the grandeur and elegance of the monuments prove it to have been a place of note.

'The number of its inhabitants at some former period, from a computation we made of what the amphitheatre was capable of containing, I should take to have been from twenty to twenty-five thousand, at a moderate calculation. Numerous remains of Greek inscriptions, perfectly discernible, beside the size of the stones, and manner of building, speak certainly as to its antiquity. We know from the ancient geographers, that the town of Telmessus formerly occupied this situation; and the inhabitants, though grossly ignorant, still retain the tradition of the name.

'We likewise visited the ruins of an old fort, standing on the summit of an almost inaccessible rock, to the eastward of the town. This, however, is not equally ancient with the rest, and indeed bears indisputable proofs of being much more modern; most probably it was a work of the Genoese.'

As we have given ample accounts, from other journalists, of the most important military operations in Egypt, we shall not detain our readers by the insertion of Captain Walsh's narrative of the same actions: only observing that the death and the character of Sir Ralph Abercromby are mentioned in dignified and becoming terms of regret.

Among the inconveniences of the climate, Captain Walsh is led to mention the hot winds:

'On the 23d of May, we experienced the very disagreeable effects of the kamsin or sirocco wind, which blew violently, and was indeed so suffocating, as to make respiration very difficult. At the

camp, near Alexandria, which was almost surrounded by water, the thermometer rose to 99° in the shade: at Algam it was at 109°, and 120° where not shaded. An Arab fell dead in the market place, at General Coote's encampment, and a camel shared the same fate at Algam.

'The real sirocco, or, as the Arabs call it, the kamsin (hot wind) is a south, or south-east wind. Its heat is very intense and oppressive, and may be compared to the glow from the mouth of a heated oven. Previous to the commencement of this wind, the sky, so clear in this country, becomes thick and hazy, and the air is filled with dust and sand. The heat of the wind increases in proportion to its continuance. You feel heavy and dry; your skin is parched up, and notwithstanding the internal heat, not the least perspiration takes place. Languor and debility pervade the whole frame, and respiration becomes extremely difficult. Though the sun is obscured, every article, even those of the coldest nature, becomes hot. Fortunately this wind seldom lasts more than a day, often not so long.'

The character of the Capoutan Pacha may be inserted, as containing grounds for political speculations of considerable importance:

'The Capoutan Pacha has displayed, in the present campaign at least, his military qualifications, which have obtained him high renown in this country, but which dwindle away when put in competition with the talents of an European commander.

'An ambition spurning the idea of a rival, prodigal generosity, activity indefatigable, great penetration, a marked predilection for every thing European, and a desire to better the condition of every one immediately about him, are the best and most prominent features in his character; but to his education in the seraglio he owes the opposite and dark side of his character, profound dissimulation, and a deep spirit of intrigue.

'He has great interest at Constantinople, derived from his own abilities, and from his relationship to the sultan, one of whose sisters is his wife. He is violent in his hatred to the person who has sufficient penetration to develop his character, or his views; but as his animosity increases, he puts on a semblance of friendship more attractive, and the mask of kindness never falls off, till his enemy is enticed into the snare.

'Still he is the only man now among the Turks, who possesses enlarged ideas in politics. He has been able to place the Turkish navy on a footing far more respectable, than when he was put at its head; and there is not one Turkish commander, except himself, who has disciplined his troops with any degree of regularity. He has now under his orders two very good regiments, those of Abdallah and Soliman Aga, commanded indeed by Germans, but owing much of their regularity to his own superintendance.

'The Capoutan Pacha has the utmost contempt for the vizier, which he does not endeavour to conceal. He took great pains to keep his army separate, and always wished that the prowess of his

troops should be compared with that of the vizier's forces. His pride told him, that he could not lose by the comparison.

'The vivacity of his mind inclines him rather to the French than to the English, and should he succeed in his views of being appointed vizier, to which situation his talents and ambition lead him, his first act would probably be to consolidate an amicable treaty with France, and endeavour to establish a regular and well disciplined army in the Turkish empire, by introducing European officers. He will probably succeed in many of his plans, unless continual fatigue, excess in opium, or intrigues, cut him off in the midst of his career.

'There is one person in whom he reposes the utmost confidence, and whom on all occasions he consults. This is Isaak Bey, a man of deep and low cunning, who has been at Paris, and is a complete Frenchman. He will most likely succeed his patron, the Capoutan Pacha, in his situation.

'Isaak Bey possesses extremely insinuating manners, and is a very abject flatterer. His stay in France having enlarged his ideas, he attempted by his writings to reform many parts of the Mahometan religion; at which, as may well be supposed, the Mufti took great offence, and got him proscribed. Isaak Bey saved himself by flight, and took refuge with his present master, who has granted him his full protection and friendship.

'The Reis Effendi, or principal secretary of the empire, is well known in England, where he was secretary to the Turkish embassy. His knowledge of European manners and politeness procured him the greatest advantages in the intercourse with our army. He is a great favourite of the grand vizier, over whom he has a powerful ascendency. He possesses very good talents, is cunning, extremely avaricious, and supposed to favour the French, for whom he has a great predilection.'

The short sketch of the history of the Mamalukes is well written, but contains nothing in addition to the remarks of former authors; and indeed, from this period to the surrender of Cairo and Alexandria, though the journal continues accurate and interesting, it offers but little for selection. The description of the occupation of Alexandria by our troops, however, deserves to be inserted:

'At twelve o'clock on the 2d of September, agreeably to the capitulation, we took possession of the French lines. Major General Cradock occupied the entrenched camp of the French on the east of the town, with the grenadiers of that division of the army. To the westward Major General Ludlow, with two hundred men of the brigade of guards, and the grenadiers of his division, took possession of forts le Turc and du Vivier, and the fortified heights of Pompey's pillar. The French had previously evacuated all these posts, and we marched in with our bands playing and drums beating. The British and Turkish flags were immediately hoisted together, and the whole was conducted with the greatest precision and regularity.

'The day was extremely fine, and the whole of the scene, heightened by the reflections, which must have arisen in every breast on the termination of a glorious campaign, was certainly one of the most pleasing and gratifying, that a soldier can feel.

'This day crowned our efforts, and gave us the entire possession of Egypt *. The effusion of human blood now ceased; the torrent subsided; and the long hovering dove at length found a place for the sole of her foot. An enemy, who during the war had considered himself as invincible, was taught by this campaign, that British troops, meeting him on fair ground, will ever maintain a fair superiority. From it we hope will result some advantage to our country; and we trust that it will not easily be forgotten, either by our enemies, or by our friends.'

After having closed the detail of historical events, the author gives a particular account of the antient and modern state of Alexandria.—The stupendous monument, usually known by the name of Pompey's Pillar, was an object of peculiar and successful research with some intelligent officers of our army; and it is no inconsiderable addition to the honour of our troops, that they have solved a problem which has long divided the opinions of the learned, by ascertaining the real purpose for which this column was erected;

'South of the town, and nearly in a line with the Pharos, stands that grand piece of antiquity, Pompey's pillar. Nothing can exceed the beauty of this fine monument of ancient architecture: it is in the highest state of preservation, except on the north-west quarter, which I imagine has suffered from the constant and violent winds blowing from that point the greater part of the year.

'The remains of a Greek inscription are plainly visible on the western face of the pedestal.

'The French have repaired the foundation supporting the pedestal, which had formerly been destroyed in part by the brutal rapacity of an Arab; who, imagining some treasure lay concealed under it, attempted, but happily in vain, to blow up this beautiful column. A cap of liberty was erected upon a pole on the top, having been placed there by the French a short time after their arrival in the country.

'*In a former part of this Work, I had mentioned it was plainly discernible, that there had been an inscription on the western face of the pe-*

'* It is a remarkable circumstance, that, by the surrender of Alexandria, the French frigate la Justice fell into our hands, and was by us ceded to the Turks. The capture of this ship completed the total annihilation of the fleet of Admiral Brueys. Of the four sail, which escaped under admiral Gantheaume, on the morning of the 2d of August, the Genereux, Guillaume Tell, and la Diane frigate, had already been captured at different periods by our ships; la Justice alone had till this day survived the defeat in Aboukir bay.'

destal

destal of the Pillar near Alexandria, commonly called Pompey's, though this has been flatly denied by some travellers. This inscription however was in such a state, that nothing short of the most indefatigable ardour could hope to decipher it; yet it has been accomplished by the able and unremitting exertions of the honourable Captain Dundas, of the Royal Staff Corps, and Lieutenant Desade of the Queen's German Regiment, the latter of whom during the campaign in Egypt served as aide-de-camp to Major General Sir Eyre Coote, as he has since under the Earl of Cavan; by whom this valuable discovery, which ascertains to whom and by whom the Pillar was erected, has just been brought to England. These Gentlemen, by visiting the Pillar repeatedly during the few moments when the Sun shone in such a direction upon the pedestal as to mark the letters by their shade, were enabled to discriminate them one after another. Thus they executed a task in Six Weeks, which none of the French Savans or Literati appear even to have attempted during their long stay in the country. I shall give the inscription first as it was made out by these Officers, and then as the deficient letters have been supplied by the Rev. Mr. Hayter at Naples; who is laudably employed in deciphering the Manuscripts found in Herculaneum: To these I shall subjoin an English translation.

ΤΟ · · · · · ΩΤΑΤΟΝ ΑΥΤΟΚΡΑΤΟΡΑ
ΤΟΝ ΠΟΛΙΟΥΧΟΝ ΑΛΕΞΑΝΔΡΕΙΑΣ
ΔΙΟΚ · Η · ΙΑΝΟΝΤΟΝ · · · · · ΤΟΝ
ΠΟ · · · · · ΕΠΑΡΧΟΣ ΑΙΓΥΠΤΟΥ

ΤΟΝ ΤΙΜΙ ΩΤΑΤΟΝ ΑΥΤΟΚΡΑΤΟΡΑ
ΤΟΝ ΠΟΛΙΟΥΧΟΝ ΑΛΕΞΑΝΔΡΕΙΑΣ
ΔΙΟΚ ΑΝΤΙΑΝΟΝ ΤΟΝ CΕΒΑCΤΟΝ
ΠΟΝΤΙΟC ΕΠΑΡΧΟC ΑΙΓΥΠΤΟΥ
" ΠΡΟCΚΥΝΕΙ"

TRANSLATION.

TO DIOCLETIANUS AUGUSTUS
MOST ADORABLE EMPEROR,
THE TUTELAR DEITY OF ALEXANDRIA,
PONTIUS, PREFECT OF EGYPT,
CONSECRATES THIS.'

The fortifications of modern Alexandria, with the French additions, are particularly described; and the author's opinion of them is that, against a regular and spirited attack, this city could not have held out more than ten or twelve days.

After an account of Grand Cairo, which tends much to lessen the romantic ideas formerly attached to that name, our intelligent traveller proceeds to visit the Pyramids: but here we find only a confirmation of the remarks of other travellers respecting the external appearance of those monuments; and we do not learn that Captain W. explored the interior of the great Pyramids.

Some general remarks on the climate and the inhabitants of Egypt conclude this amusing volume.

The very extensive appendix, consisting of official documents will be interesting, in future days, to the historical reader: at present, as its contents have been reviewed and appreciated by the unanimous sentiment of the senate and the people, they require no comment from us. It also includes a number of papers which, we think, have not before been made public.

We have only to regret, on taking leave of this work, that its price will prevent its circulation among some classes of readers, who would be highly gratified by such a memorial of the gallantry of our countrymen. We find, however, that its dissemination has already been extensive, a second edition of it having appeared since the preceding account was written.

Fer.

ART. III. *The Metrical Miscellany:* consisting chiefly of Poems hitherto unpublished. 8vo. pp. 234. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.

THIS collection will probably be acceptable to the lovers of modern poetry, since it comprizes many agreeable pieces, though not of the highest class, or not corresponding with our ideas of correct composition. Were we to mount our critical spectacles of the greatest powers, we might perhaps treat some of the performances, now first offered to the public, with a little severity: but, on this occasion, we wish to be pleased, and to look through as indulgent a medium as possible. We shall therefore refrain from characterizing those poems which we regard as belonging to the unhappy class of mediocrity, or which have appeared on former occasions; and shall confine our remarks to such new productions as seem to challenge particular notice.

On reading the Idyllium of Moschus on the death of Bion, imitated by the Hon. Henry Erskine, we naturally looked with impatience for the version of that celebrated passage, ἄι ἄι ἄι μαλαχαι, &c. and we find it run thus:

> 'The fruits that in the cluster'd garden grow,
> The fragrant vi'lets that unbidden blow,
> The flow'ry tribes, that grasp'd by winter's hand,
> Scatter their with'ring beauties on the land,
> Die not for ever, tho' a while they lie
> Expos'd to every blast that sweeps the sky;
> When spring, returning, breathes along the plain,
> They rise, in all their glory rise again:
> But MAN, the great, the good, the brave, the wise,
> By Fate o'erthrown, falls, never more to rise!
> From doom eternal not a pow'r can save,
> Or rouse the long, long slumber of the grave.

Sicilian

Sicilian Muse, begin the strain of woe,
And make the song in mournful measure flow.'

These lines certainly do not equal the original. Thomson, the poet of nature and virtue, has improved on this thought in his *Summer :*

" Believe the muse ; the wint'ry blast of Death
Kills not the buds of virtue ;—no, they spread
Beneath the heavenly beam of brighter suns,
Thro' endless ages, into higher powers."

The versions given by this gentleman (Mr. E.) are in general hard, and deficient in elegance ; which we feel particularly in his imitation of Horace's " *Otium Divos rogat ;*"

' When clouds obscure the Queen of Night,
And veil from light her silver ray,
Nor lends one friendly star his light
To guide the vessel's wand'ring way,
Long tost upon the raging seas,
The wearied sailor prays for ease.

' In war, the furious Thracian tried,
Inur'd to danger, toil, and pain,
The Median gay, in quiver'd pride,
Both, wish for ease and peace in vain ;
Ease, which for purple, gems, or gold,
Ne'er was, or ever can be sold.

' Not all the wealth of India's mine,
Not all the pomp or pride of pow'r,
Tho' every pageant should combine
To deck its bright but transient hour,
Can, from the gilded bed of state,
Banish the cares that haunt the great.

' Better, and happier far, he fares,
Whose plain, yet neat and wholesome board,
Spread with the produce of his cares,
Can health, content, and mirth afford ;
No wish to gain, no fear to lose,
Disturb his peaceful soft repose.

' Why then does enterprizing Man,
So many schemes for fortune try ?
Why risk life's short uncertain span
Beneath a foreign baleful sky ?
Tho' through a thousand climes he roam,
Ne'er can he leave his cares at home.

' The stoutest ship that braves the main,
With eager strides black Care ascends,
The swiftest troops that scour the plain
As swift, his ghastly form attends ;

Fleet

Fleet as the lightly-bounding Roe,
Or clouds when fiercest tempests blow.

' Contented now, why should we care
What changes fleeting time may bring?
Let social pleasure heal despair,
And mirth each future moment wing,
Of each event still make the best,
For who was e'er completely blest?

' Achilles, warlike Greece's pride,
Died glorious on the bloody plain,
While Tython's age, a grave denied,
Long call'd on Death, but call'd in vain;
And Heaven perhaps may give to me
The days and years denied to thee.

' A thousand flocks thy mountains feed,
A thousand herds thy verdant plains,
For thee loud neighs the foaming steed,
Obedient to the silken reins,
While purple, radiant as the morn,
With gold and gems thy robes adorn.

' In humble cot, obscure to dwell,
To me my fate has Heav'n assign'd,
But bids the Muse my bosom swell
And freedom elevate my mind;
Inspiring both my heart and song
To scorn the base and vulgar throng.'

We cannot avoid remarking that Mr. Erskine has lost sight of Horace's meaning, when he writes

' The swiftest troops that scour the plain
As swift, his ghastly form attend;'

The old French translation was much more happy:

" *Le chagrin monte en croupe, & galope avec lui.*"

The spirit of translation sinks still more in the version of the ode, *Beatus ille qui procul negotiis:* but who can imitate Horace in Quatrains?

Readers of taste and feeling will be glad to learn that the Duchess of Devonshire's poem on the passage of Mount St. Gothard is republished in this volume.

Among those verses which we do not recollect to have seen in any former collection, we select the following lines, ' by Maria Riddell:'

' INSCRIPTION WRITTEN ON AN HERMITAGE IN ONE OF THE ISLANDS OF THE WEST-INDIES *.

' Within this rural cot I rest,
With Solitude to calm my breast;

' * The Author was then but sixteen.'

And

And while beneath th' umbrageous bow'r
Content beguiles each roseate hour,
And while with Anna oft I rove
Soft friendship's mutual sweets to prove,
I scorn the pageants of the great,
Nor envy pow'r and empty state.

' No thoughtless mortals e'er invade
The sacred limits of this glade;
No busy footsteps here are seen
To print the flow'r-enamell'd green;
But far remote from pomp and noise
No care my happiness destroys;
Save when the lov'd idea reigns
Of distant *Albion*'s blissful plains,
Far, far remov'd, perhaps no more
Destin'd to hail my natal shore:
(Perhaps, Horatio, thy dear form
No more these languid eyes may charm,
No more this faithful bosom warm!)

' Here, safe in this sequester'd vale,
The stock doves pour their tender tale;
Here too the peaceful Halcyons rest,
And weave secure their downy nest;
Or sportive now, on azure wing,
Flutter in many an aëry ring;
Expanding, gorgeous, as they fly,
Their sapphire plumage to the sky.

' Soon as Aurora wakes the dawn,
I press with nimble feet the lawn,
Eager to deck the favourite bow'r
With every opening bud and flow'r,
Explore each shrub and balmy sweet
To scatter o'er my mossy seat,
And teach around in wreaths to stray
The rich Pomegranate's pliant spray.

' At noon, reclin'd in yonder glade,
Panting beneath the Tamarind's shade,
Or where the Palm-tree's nodding head
Guards from the Sun my verdant bed,
I quaff, to slake my thirsty soul,
The Coco's full nectareous bowl.

' At eve, beneath some spreading tree
I read th' inspired Poesie
Of Milton, Pope, or Spenser mild,
And Shakespear, Fancy's brightest child;
To tender Sterne I lend an ear,
Or drop o'er Héloise the tear;
Sometimes with Anna tune the lay
And close in song the cheerful day.

'Tis thus the circling year is spent
In harmony and sweet content,
And when (*should* Fortune so ordain)
I view my native realms again,
I'll ne'er forget the tranquil hours
I spent in India's spicy bow'rs,
Nor e'en prefer the World's great Stage
To this sequester'd Hermitage.'

We add the lines on a Red breast flying into the parlour at W——, at the approach of winter, in 1773;—by the same Lady:

Welcome, sweet bird, that from the leafless grove
Now seek'st a refuge in my lowly shed;
Stay, timid guest, my kind protection prove,
These rustic floors with safety may'st thou tread.

Here placid Nature holds her tranquil reign,
Sacred to thought, to solitude, and me;
And tho' proud luxury my roof disdain,
Its humble stores shall still be shar'd with thee.

No fowler here; with stern unpitying hand,
Directs the tube, or spreads the guileful snare;
But here the Nine, a tender friendly band,
With Love and Pity in their train, repair:

Here oft, by THOMSON's gentle spirit led,
Pensive they stray these oak clad hills around,
Or press the dewy vale with printless tread,
And range the meads with Autumn's tints embrown'd.

Fear not th' asylum that we give, to share,
Nor deem these sylvan pow'rs to thee unknown,
Thy social form to every Muse is dear,
And soft-eyed Pity claims thee for her own;

Moved by *Her* dictates, once, thou wing'dst thy way,
As ancient minstrels sang in simple verse,
And sought the drooping infants where they lay,
And strew'd with mournful Cypress buds their hearse.

And when they slept beneath the Hawthorn's shade,
And the pale Primrose o'er their green sods hung,
Daily thou pourd'st thy wild notes thro' the glade,
And to their spotless souls a requiem sung.

Thrice gentle deed! be its desert fulfill'd;
May freshest rills unlock their crystal spring,
Its crimson berries may the Hawthorn yield,
And vernal hours, for thee, their transports bring!

And when blythe May new decks the vocal groves,
Be thine a faithful mate's soft toils to share,
No truant boy disturb thy hallow'd loves,
Or from thy nest the callow offspring bear.

'Till then a free and welcome guest remain,
My kind associate thro' the Winter drear;
Here, shelter'd warm, defy his sullen reign,
And with thy songs my rustic cottage cheer.'

Upon the whole, we must observe that the best performances contained in this volume were previously known, and that some of the new poems did not merit to be rescued from their manuscript condition. We allude particularly to two or three legendary pieces which appear towards the close of the volume, and a few of which are attributed to the pen of an eminent whig statesman; we hope, undeservedly. After the melancholy example of Dr. Johnson, indeed, we need not wonder at the misjudging zeal of admiring friends: but, as this gentleman is happily still alive, we are much concerned to find such lines as the following imputed to him:

'How sad the change! the morning Sun
Beheld them gay and fair;
When evening came, the rising Moon
Gleam'd on their funeral bier.

'Curs'd be the hand that mix'd the bowl,
And blasted be the head
Of her whose dark and jealous soul
Placed Ina with the dead.

'Poor Egbert too! but they 're at rest!
Me, rest can never know;
Curse on that wretch's ruthless breast
Who steep'd my days in woe!

''Twas Bertha; mad with slighted love
She fann'd a fiercer fire,
And call'd on Vengeance to remove
The objects of her ire.

'I call'd on Vengeance too—she heard,
Propitious to my call;
In Suicide's dread form appear'd,
And work'd fierce Bertha's fall.'

We much wish that the editor had omitted this species of composition, which is now quite superannuated in the estimation of the public.—If, in forming the present volume, more value had been set on simplicity, and less on conceits in thought and affectation of expression, we should have been enabled to gratify ourselves by a warmer recommendation of it to the different classes of our readers.

Fer.

ART. IV. *Practical Observations in Surgery*, illustrated with Cases. By William Hey, Esq. F.R.S. &c. 8vo. pp. 540. 10s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1803.

WE have no doubt that this volume will be received as a welcome present by the Faculty, on account of the reputation and long experience of the author, Mr. Hey of Leeds. It contains a variety of useful facts, unconnected by any laboured arrangement, but not less valuable to the practical Surgeon for the absence of theory.

In the first chapter, on Fractures of the Skull, Mr. Hey opposes the circular excision of a portion of the scalp, proposed by Mr. Pott; and we believe that he only expresses the present opinion of every judicious Surgeon in this country. Instead of the trephine, he recommends a saw, which may be worked in a straight or gently curvilinear direction, so as to follow the course of a fracture, without those repeated applications which have rendered the operation of trepanning very tedious. Of this instrument, Mr. Hey has given figures; and his cases afford proofs of its utility in extensive fractures and depressions of the skull. The application of this kind of saw, in removing the diseased bones, is described in two cases of caries in the tibia, and in the following curious operation, the account of which we shall extract entire:

'A WOUND *of the posterior* TIBIAL ARTERY.

'June 22d, 1801. John Appleyard, a collier, aged fifty four years, was admitted an in-patient of the Leeds Infirmary, under the care of Mr. Logan, on account of a wound in his leg, made with a sharp pick-ax, the 15th instant. The wound had bled violently at the first, but the hæmorrhage ceased in a short time, and did not return till near the expiration of a week. Mr. Logan was then desired to visit the poor man at his own house; but the hæmorrhage, though it had been again violent, had ceased before his arrival.

'Mr. Logan, finding that the pick-ax had passed into the man's leg between the tibia and fibula, and had made a deep wound, in which, without dilatation, the bleeding vessel could not be discovered, recommended a removal of the patient to the General Infirmary.

'24th. I saw the patient with Mr. Logan. The wound was then plugged up by pieces of spunge, which the house apothecary had applied, upon an appearance of returning hæmorrhage. There was at this time no bleeding; and the leg being in an inflamed state, we judged it best to apply a mild poultice, and to defer an enlargement of the wound till the inflammation should have ceased.

'July 1st. The hæmorrhage returned, but was immediately checked by the application of a tourniquet. Mr. Logan called a consultation of the surgeons, and as the inflammation of the leg had now ceased, it was determined to make an attempt to secure the bleeding vessel. After the removal of the spunge, the wound was carefully

carefully examined. It admitted a finger to pass readily behind the fibula to the side of the tendo Achillis, at which place the wound approached near the skin. As it was impossible to discover the wounded vessel through the orifice at which the pick-ax had entered, it was thought proper to make a wound on the back part of the leg by the side of the tendo Achillis, where the integuments felt thin. Upon slackening the tourniquet, the blood gushed out at both the wounds, and appeared so clearly to flow from a vessel deeply seated behind the fibula, that there seemed to be no hope of discovering and securing the vessel by means of an incision made on either side of the fibula. In this dilemma it occurred to me, that the late Mr. Gooch had proposed the removal of a portion of the fibula, in such a case as the present, to prevent the necessity of amputating the limb. I mentioned this thought to my colleagues, who approved of the proposal, and the operation was immediately performed by Mr. Logan.

'After making a proper division of the integuments, the peronæi muscles were separated from the bone sufficiently to admit of the removal of a piece two inches in length. It was impossible to perform this part of the operation with a common saw, without cutting through the peronæi muscles. The use of a trephine would have left four sharp projecting points of bone, which would have required the assistance of the strong bone nippers. But the saws above described took off the bone without injury to any of the contiguous soft parts, and without leaving any projecting point of bone.

'The removal of the bone gave us a complete view of the wounded artery, in which a hole had been made by the point of the pick-ax at the distance of three inches above the joint of the ancle. The vessel was tied both above and below the orifice, and after the divided integuments were in part united by sutures, the leg was placed in a fracture box.

'The patient recovered without any bad symptom.'

In the second chapter, on Cataract, Mr. Hey avows his preference of couching to the method of extraction; and in the former case, he recommends a round instead of the spear-pointed needle, but flattened near the point. The directions for performing the operation, as well as the remarks on the formation of cataracts, are highly important: but it would be unjust to abridge them; and we must therefore refer to the book.

Mr. Hey observes that sometimes inflammation of the eye, sometimes dilatation of the pupil, follows even the successful operation. The secondary cataract, or opacity of the capsule of the crystalline, is directed to be removed by a repetition of couching. Among several cases, related by the author in support of his opinions, he mentions the dissipation of a cataract, in a very young subject, in consequence of passing the needle through it, without attempting to depress it.—This chapter concludes with some observations on Baron Wenzel's objections against couching: to which Mr. Hey has in general given satisfactory

satisfactory answers; and he has added the Baron's own objections to the operation of extraction.

The next chapter treats of Strangulated Hernia. Respecting the effect of general remedies in favouring the reduction of the intestine, Mr. Hey very properly allows no exclusive merit to any: but he considers the injection of tobacco as the most useful on the whole; and he prefers the injection of the decoction to that of the fume. We extract his opinion respecting the time for determining on the operation:

'When I first entered upon the profession of surgery, in the year 1759, the operation for the strangulated hernia had not been performed by any of the surgeons in Leeds. My seniors in the profession were very kind in affording me their assistance, or calling me into consultation when such cases occurred; but we considered the operation as the last resource, and as improper until the danger appeared imminent. By this dilatory mode of practice I lost three patients in five upon whom the operation was performed. Having more experience of the urgency of the disease, I made it my custom, when called to a patient who had laboured two or three days under the disease, to wait only about two hours, that I might try the effect of bleeding (if this evacuation was not forbidden by some peculiar circumstances of the case) and the tobacco clyster. In this mode of practice I lost about two patients in nine upon whom I operated. This comparison is drawn from cases nearly similar, leaving out of the account those cases in which a gangrene of the intestine had taken place.

'I have now, at the time of writing this, performed the operation thirty-five times; and have often had occasion to lament that I had performed it too late, but never that I had performed it too soon. There are some cases so urgent, that it is not advisable to lose any time in the trial of means to produce a reduction. The delay of a few hours may cut off all hope of success, when a speedy operation might have saved the life of the patient.'

In performing the operation, Mr. Hey remarks, among other advice, that

'The opening of the hernial sac should be made with great caution. There is sometimes, indeed, such a quantity of fluid in the sac, that no harm would ensue from an unguarded perpendicular incision; but I have often seen the intestine and omentum in contact with the sac, so as to render such an incision dangerous. The best method is, to dissect very cautiously the most prominent part of the hernial sac, for about an inch in length, dividing the layers of aponeurotic substance, if there are any, with the intervention of a small director; and then to cut the remaining part of the hernial sac with the edge of the knife turned horizontally, having elevated what you are about to cut with the dissecting forceps. By this method the sac may always be opened without danger.

'As soon as the sac is opened, which is usually indicated by the issuing of a thin fluid, and the orifice is sufficiently enlarged to admit the

the finger, the remainder of the sac may be divided by the curved bubonocele knife. But I would advise the operator to avoid carrying his incision quite to the inferior extremity of the sac, in the scrotal hernia. This is so connected with the tunica vaginalis, that the latter is in danger of being divided, if the incision is carried on to the extremity of the sac. I have seen this happen, and therefore commonly leave a quarter or half an inch of the sac undivided, which practice I never saw attended with any inconvenience.'

Mr. Hey adopts the improvement made by Dr. Gimbernat in the operation for the femoral hernia; and he says that he had obtained a practical knowlege of the necessity for dividing the femoral ligament, before he became acquainted with the anatomical distinction of the part. He seems inclined to believe that, when patients have recovered after gangrene of the intestine had taken place, the *caput cæcum coli* had constituted the hernia.

The state of the omentum is represented by the author as highly important to be known, whenever it is concerned in hernia; and he conceives it to be extremely susceptible of injury, and its wounds to be very dangerous, in opposition to the doctrines of some popular writers. From these considerations, he says:

'When the portion of omentum, which is prolapsed, is in a sound state, of little bulk, and strongly adherent to the hernial sac; and when, from inquiries made of the patient, we learn, that this small part has been prolapsed for many years, without disturbing the functions of the abdominal viscera; we may fairly conclude, that we shall not injure those functions by leaving such a portion in its prolapsed state. In such a case I have suffered the omentum to remain, and have found no difficulty in healing the wound, nor any injury afterwards from the application of a well adapted truss. In one patient I left a portion which I judged to be about two ounces avoirdupois in weight, which was the largest portion that I have suffered to remain. The wound was healed at the expiration of six weeks after the operation. The pad of the truss, which was afterwards applied, consisted of an oval ring, made exactly to the shape of the remaining tumour. This kind of truss sat easy upon the patient; and I suppose answered very well, as I have heard nothing from him to the contrary, though it was applied in the year 1772. He lived about thirty miles from Leeds: but the operation was performed upon him at a small alehouse betwixt Leeds and Wakefield, where he was seized with the strangulation as he was travelling.'

Mr. Hey dissuades, therefore, from the practice of applying a tight ligature to the omentum, in a sound state, however it may be enlarged; and this method of gradually removing the useless parts, by the application of compression, deserves the attention of practitioners.—He is equally averse to the excision of

any large portion of the omentum; and he has proved the danger of the practice by the following cases:

'Sept. 16th, 1795. Moses Bradford, aged sixty-one years, was brought into the General Infirmary at Leeds, with a strangulated scrotal hernia, on the right side. He had been subject to the hernia for several years. The strangulation had commenced in the forenoon of the preceding day. He had vomiting, hiccough, fulness and tension of the abdomen.—His tongue was clean and moist. His pulse at seventy. The tumour was very tense near the ring. The operation was performed at three in the afternoon. The contents of the hernial sac were a portion of omentum in a sound state, and a portion of intestine highly inflamed. The omentum was of a pyriform figure. Its broad part adhered to the bottom of the sac, and was about the size of an ordinary pear. The upper part had contracted no adhesion with the sac, and was about the thickness of one's little finger. There seemed no reason to doubt that the omentum had remained in this state for some years.

'I could not introduce the tip of my forefinger, for the purpose of dividing the ring and neck of the hernial sac, but was obliged to make use of a director. After an opening was made, capable of admitting my finger to pass into the abdomen with ease, I could not still reduce the intestine, until I had divided the omentum, which I did at the lower part of its neck. Mr. Logan held its upper part between his fingers for a short time after the division, to see whether it would bleed; and as no hæmorrhage took place, I reduced it, and afterwards replaced the intestine with ease. I removed the remaining part of the omentum which adhered to the sac.

'No sooner was the reduction of the intestine completed, than florid blood began to flow from the abdomen. We could not doubt that this hæmorrhage proceeded from the divided omentum, and were sorry that we had not suffered it to lie a little longer out of the abdomen. The divided part had been pushed up so high by the intestine, and, indeed, had retired so readily before the intestine was reduced, that there was not the least probability of laying hold of it.

'I ordered sal. amari ʒ j. to be taken every hour in a cupfull of cold water, immediately after its solution, and directed the application of cloths, dipped in cold water, to the abdomen.'

This patient recovered.—Again:

'December 26, 1797. I was desired to visit William Langdale, a journeyman coach maker, aged thirty five years, who was said to be violently afflicted with the colic. He complained of great pain in his belly, which was aggravated by fits, and was chiefly felt a little below the navel. He vomited every thing he took, and was costive. Upon inquiry I found a tumour in the scrotum, of which the man had taken no notice, not apprehending it to have any connection with his disorder. I informed his friends of the true nature of his complaint, and advised them to convey him immediately to the Infirmary. My advice was followed, and at two o'clock I visited him there in consultation with Mr. Logan.

'The

'The man informed us, that a swelling similar to that which we now found, though not so large, had at different times affected him. This he had always before been able to reduce, but did not remember to have perceived any guggling noise during the reduction of the prolapsed part. He seemed quite ignorant of the nature of his disease, but assured us, that he had not a constant swelling in the scrotum or groin. The present seizure took place soon after he rose out of bed, at two o'clock in the morning of the preceding day. From that time he had had frequent vomiting, with great pain in the abdomen, but not much pain in the tumour. The abdomen had now a considerable degree of tension. His tongue was white and furred. His pulse strong, and at eighty-six.

'The tumour was of an unusual form. That part of it which lay in the groin had more resemblance to a thickened spermatic chord, than to an ordinary hernia. As the patient repeatedly affirmed, that he had never perceived that guggling noise, which usually accompanies the reduction of a prolapsed intestine, when upon former attacks he had repressed the rupture; and as at this attack the pain was chiefly felt a little below the navel, we thought it not improbable that the hernia might be an epiplocele. We determined, however, to try the effect of bleeding and the tobacco clyster before we proceeded to the operation. A pint of blood was immediately drawn, by opening a vein in each arm at the same time; and a clyster made with the decoction of tobacco was injected.

'We visited the patient again at four o'clock; and finding no alteration for the better, I performed the operation. The hernial sac contained a good deal of serous fluid, besides a pretty large portion of intestine, inveloped and completely covered by omentum. The neck of the hernial sac, below the abdominal ring, formed so considerable a stricture, that I could not introduce the tip of my finger to guide the curved bistory. It even required some force to introduce a director suitable to this occasion. After dividing the neck of the hernial sac, I could easily introduce my finger within the abdominal ring, which I also divided sufficiently to permit the reduction of the intestine.

'The omentum was become gangrenous, and in one part adhered pretty strongly to the intestine. That part of the intestine, which had been inclosed in the stricture made by the neck of the hernial sac, appeared as if it had been tied round by a string. The colour was so much altered by this impression, that we were under considerable apprehension of a separation taking place at this part. I endeavoured to reduce the intestine with all possible gentleness, after I had separated it from the omentum: yet, notwithstanding all the caution I could use, I was much afraid that the operation would not preserve the life of my patient, even if no injury should arise from the morbid state of the omentum.

'I had always been afraid of large wounds of the omentum; but as the excision of a gangrened portion, by cutting through the adjacent sound part, stood so strongly recommended by Mr. Pott, of whose judgment I had a very high opinion, I determined to follow his example in this instance. I cut off, therefore, all that had a

morbid appearance, and the remainder, as soon as I ceased to hold it, retired spontaneously into the abdomen.

'A hæmorrhage immediately ensued, which, from the distinct colour of different parts of the stream, evidently consisted both of arterial and venous blood. The discharge of blood diminished so much in a short time, that I ventured to unite the divided integuments, through the whole extent of the wound, by the interrupted suture. I ordered a purging clyster to be injected, and half an ounce of ol. ricini to be given every three hours till a free evacuation should be procured.

'I visited the patient about two hours after the operation, and found him asleep.

'At ten in the evening I was called to him, on account of a violent hæmorrhage which the nurse had just discovered. The blood had flowed through his bed upon the floor. I immediately cut out the ligatures which were in the upper part of the wound, both to give a free issue to the blood, and also to enable me to know the true state of the hæmorrhage.—The blood which now issued out appeared to be venous. It flowed irregularly, sometimes ceasing for ten or twelve minutes. I applied cloths dipped in cold water to the abdomen and scrotum, and kept dabbing the wound with a cold wet spunge. His pulse was weak, and at a hundred and eight. His countenance more pale. The belly less tense. He had had one stool. I left him at half-past eleven, as the hæmorrhage had then abated, desiring the house apothecary, and my senior pupil, who remained with him, to continue the application of the cold cloths till the hæmorrhage should cease, and to give the ol. ricini every three hours.'

This patient also recovered, by copious purging; a most necessary point of attention subsequently to an operation of this nature.

As the following case, of strangulation of one side of an intestine, deserves to be made generally known, we insert it entire:

'A labouring man, aged fifty years, subject to a small scrotal hernia, which always retired upon lying down, had the misfortune to strike the scrotum and hypogastrium against a post, as he was walking in the streets in the evening, November 28, 1767. A vomiting immediately supervened, which soon went off, but returned in the morning, and continued all day. I saw him in the evening. There was no appearance of a bruise upon the abdomen or scrotum. The former was somewhat tense, and seemed to be very painful when pressed. There was a very small tumour in the right groin, not exceeding the bulk of a cherry. It was free from tension, though painful when touched. It did not retire upon pressure. The patient informed me, that the rupture was now less than it used to be, when he was in an erect posture; but had not retired as usual upon lying down. He seemed to be in great pain, for the sweat ran down his face, though his situation was far from being warm. His pulse

pulse was about a hundred, but neither full nor tense His tongue whitish. His urine was discharged in small quantities.

'About sixteen ounces of blood were taken from his arm. The cathartic bitter salt was directed to be taken in small doses, combined with an opiate; and a purging clyster was injected.

'30th. The pain in the abdomen had continued severe all night. The vomiting also remained. The abdomen was more swelled, especially in the epigastric region.

'At eleven in the forenoon he had a pretty large stool, of proper colour and consistence, but was not relieved by it. Mr. Billam, a surgeon in Leeds, visited him along with me soon after this evacuation. The purging clyster was repeated, and after it a mild clyster was injected. A blister was directed to be applied to the abdomen. Extract. cathartic. ℈ j. thebaic. gr iss. were given, and the solution of purging salt repeated. His pulse was small, and at a hundred and twenty. The vomiting continued. At nine in the evening we visited him again. He had had a loose stool, but was not relieved. He had another evacuation in the night; but died about three o'clock in the morning.

'I obtained leave to examine the contents of the abdomen, which I did in the evening, in the presence of Mr. Lucas, surgeon, and others.

'I first removed the integuments covering the small tumour. There was a slight protuberance of the peritoneum, appearing just below the abdominal ring, and lying on the innerside of the spermatic chord. This afterwards was found to be a small hernial sac; but I did not open it till I had examined the contents of the abdomen. The intestines had an inflamed appearance throughout; they adhered in many places to the peritoneum, and universally to each other. They were covered by a thick inflammatory exudation, which in some parts appeared to be one-eighth of an inch in thickness. A large quantity of purulent matter was diffused in the abdomen. A small portion of the ileon, not more than half the breadth of the intestine, was contained in the small hernial sac, and adhered so strongly to it, that a hole was made in the intestine by drawing it gently out of the sac. The omentum had an inflamed appearance. A portion of the ileon adhered to the bladder, which also appeared inflamed

'This poor man died about fifty-six hours after he had received the blow. Whether the operation for the strangulated hernia, if performed at an early period of the disease, would have afforded any probability of recovery, I shall leave to the judgment of others It is of use to know that one side of an intestine may be strangulated, and become gangrened in the hernial sac without any external tension. That in such a case, a patient may have discharges of even solid excrement. That when a strangulation subsists, the danger is not diminished in proportion to the smallness of the hernia. That a hernia may retire in part, and the remainder suffer a fatal strangulation. And lastly, that a full and tense state of the pulse is not a constant concomitant of a highly inflamed state of the intestines.'

Many other valuable remarks occur on this subject, which we must refrain from noticing, in consequence of want of room: but we must not omit to state that Mr. Hey gives an account of a new truss for the exomphalos, which he strongly recommends, and which seems, from the description and engraving, to be an useful improvement.

In the fourth chapter, the author treats on the *Fungus Hematodes.* The cases which form the principal part of this chapter are too long to be transcribed, but we shall copy some of the author's reflections:

'In one case, the large mass, constituting the tumour, appears to have been originally formed by an extravasated fluid, which in a short time became organized. It is not to be supposed, that a tumour coming on immediately after a violent sprain, and, in the course of a few hours, extending itself from the knee half way up the thigh, could be formed in any other way than by the rupture of some vessels, pouring out their fluid contents into the cellular substance of the thigh. But of what nature was this fluid? We know that pure blood will remain extravasated for a long time unchanged. The substance found in this patient's thigh had not the appearance of pure coagulated blood. It was indeed chiefly, but not uniformly, of a red colour; and when handled it felt rather like the medulla of the brain, than coagulated blood, being of a consistence somewhat unctuous. Was it blood mixed with a large proportion of lymph? The texture of the substance might lead to this supposition, which receives strength from the consideration, that the tumour was situated in that part of the thigh where the largest lymphatic vessels are found.'

We quote the subsequent case, because it affords, in Mr. Hey's opinion, a complete idea of the symptoms of this disease:

'The tumour was not painful. It had arisen to a considerable size before the patient was aware of its existence; and it was first pointed out to him by his friends, who observed, that the posterior part of one shoulder was become larger than the other.

'It did not interrupt the motion of the muscles upon which it was situated; the patient being able, as he informed me, to follow his laborious employment of a blacksmith as well as usual.

'Its situation seemed to be between the integuments and external muscles, a little below the joint of the shoulder, covering a great part of the scapula.

'Its form and size may be understood by the following measurement, which I took with a marked tape: from the base on one side, to that on the opposite side, where the breadth was the greatest, carrying the measure over the summit of the tumour, it measured 12 inches. The measure taken across the tumour, in the same way, at its smallest breadth, was 8 inches. Its base measured 23 inches.

'When examined by gentle pressure in various ways, it seemed to be of an uneven density. In some parts, an alternate pressure gave

gave the sensation of a deep-seated fluid. When grasped by the fingers in other parts, one might perceive an irregular hardness. This examination gave no pain.

'It was moveable, but in a slight degree: not so much as a wen formed by an enlargement of the adipose membrane.

'The cutaneous veins, which ran over its surface, were enlarged.

'Some idea of its growth may be obtained from the following particulars. It was first examined in July 1800, and it was then judged to be about half the size at which I found it. The patient had been lately at Harrowgate, and had used a hot bath there, which he apprehended had much increased the size of the tumour.

'The integuments did not seem to be rendered thinner by the distention of the fungus, which I conceived to be lodged beneath and within them.'

A drawing of the disease, as it appeared on the arm, is added to illustrate this chapter.

In chapter V. on Dislocations, Mr. Hey has very judiciously recommended the gentle methods of reduction which were inculcated by the late Dr. Hunter.—A mode of extension, proposed by Mr. Lucas, is described: but, by some accident, the plate explanatory of it is wanting in the copy before us. We shall transcribe the short account of Mr. Hey's method of reduction, when the head of the os humeri lies behind the pectoral muscle:

'As the head of the bone lay at a considerable distance from the socket, I was apprehensive that the extension of the pectoral muscle might have caused a stricture upon the neck of the bone, and thereby prevented the head from returning into the axilla. I determined therefore to try what a gentle motion of the bone in various directions, accompanied with a slight extension, would effect.

'While I was using this method, without the aid of any assistant, my colleague, Mr. Chorley, who was with me, put his hand upon the head of the bone, which he could feel through the pectoral muscle, and thrust it towards the cavity of the joint. Our motions happening to correspond, the head of the bone passed easily into the axilla, and was then reduced without difficulty, two assistants making the extension while I pressed upwards the head of the bone.'

In the formidable accident of a dislocation of the thigh-bone forwards and downwards, Mr. Hey directs the following method of treatment:

'In this species of dislocation, as the head of the bone is situated lower than the acetabulum, it is evident, that an extension made in a right line with the trunk of the body, must remove the head of the bone farther from its proper place, and thereby prevent instead of assisting reduction. The extension ought to be made with the thigh at a right angle, or inclined somewhat less than a right angle, to the trunk of the body. When the extension has removed the head of the bone from the external obturator muscle, which covers

the great foramen of the os innominatum, the upper part of the os femoris must then be pushed or drawn outwards; which motion will be greatly assisted by moving the lower part of the os femoris, at the same moment, in a contrary direction, and by a rotatory motion of the bone upon its own axis, turning the head of the bone towards the acetabulum.'

This plan is elucidated by two cases.

In the sixth chapter, we meet with some curious and useful observations on Internal Derangement of the Knee Joint. The author's account of the symptoms of this complaint is as follows:

'This disorder may happen either with, or without, contusion. In the latter case it is readily distinguished. In the former, the symptoms are equivocal, till the effects of the contusion are removed. When no contusion has happened, or the effects of it are removed, the joint, with respect to its shape, appears to be uninjured. If there is any difference from its usual appearance, it is, that the ligament of the patella appears rather more relaxed than in the sound limb. The leg is readily bent or extended by the hands of the surgeon, and without pain to the patient: at most, the degree of uneasiness caused by this flexion and extension is trifling. But the patient himself cannot freely bend, nor perfectly extend the limb in walking; but is compelled to walk with an invariable and small degree of flexion. Though the patient is obliged to keep the leg thus stiff in walking; yet in sitting down the affected joint will move like the other.

'The complaint which I have described may be brought on, I apprehend, by any such alteration in the state of the joint as will prevent the condyles of the os femoris from moving truly in the hollow formed by the semilunar cartilages and articular depressions of the tibia. An unequal tension of the lateral, or cross ligaments of the joint, or some slight derangement of the semilunar cartilages, may probably be sufficient to bring on the complaint. When the disorder is the effect of contusion, it is most likely that the lateral ligament on one side of the joint may be rendered somewhat more rigid than usual, and hereby prevent that equable motion of the condyles of the os femoris, which is necessary for walking with firmness.'

To understand the method of cure, it will be necessary to extract the second case of this disorder:

'In 1784, the honourable Miss Harriet Ingram (now Mrs. Aston), as she was playing with a child, and making a considerable exertion, in stretching herself forwards, and stooping to take hold of the child, while she rested upon one leg, brought on an immediate lameness in the knee joint of that leg on which she stood. The disorder was considered as a simple sprain; and a plaster was applied round the joint. As the lameness did not diminish in the course of five or six days, I was desired to visit her.

'Upon

'Upon comparing the knees, I could perceive no difference, except that, when the limbs were placed in a state of complete extension, the ligament of the patella of the injured joint seemed to be rather more relaxed than in that joint which had received no injury. When I moved the affected knee by a gentle flexion and extension, my patient complained of no pain; yet she could not perfectly extend the leg in walking, nor bend it in raising the foot from the floor; but moved as if the joint had been stiff, limping very much and walking with pain.

'I thought it probable, that the sudden exertion might in some degree have altered the situation of the cross ligaments, or otherwise have displaced the condyles of the os femoris with respect to the semilunar cartilages; so that the condyles might meet with some resistance when the flexor or extensor muscles were put into action, and thereby the free motion of the joint might be hindered, when the incumbent weight of the body pressed the thigh bone closely against the tibia; though this derangement was not so great as to prevent the joint, when relaxed, from being moved with ease.

'To remedy this derangement, I placed my patient upon an elevated seat, which had nothing underneath it that could prevent the leg from being pushed backward towards the posterior part of the thigh. I then extended the joint by the assistance of one hand placed just above the knee, while with the other hand I grasped the leg. During the continuance of the extension, I suddenly moved the leg backwards, that it might make as acute an angle with the thigh as possible. This operation I repeated once, and then desired the young lady to try how she could walk. Whatever may be thought of my theory, my practice proved successful; for she was immediately able to walk without lameness, and on the third day after this reduction she danced at a private ball without inconvenience, or receiving any injury from the exercise.'

The next case relates a recurrence of the accident to the same lady, and its cure by the same means. This fact, with others of a like nature mentioned by Mr. Hey, seems to explain the success of some bone setters, who acquire a reputation in practices of this kind, which they employ without any directing principle.

Chapter VII. relates to loose Cartilaginous Substances in the Joints. Mr. Hey's plan, in this troublesome and often dangerous complaint, consists in the use of quilted knee-pieces.

Chapter IX. treats of the compound Luxation of the Ancle-joint; and we learn that Mr. Hey follows Mr. Gooch's plan of sawing off the head of the protruded bone.

We find many useful and important remarks, in chapter 10th, on Retention of Urine. The following are the author's general observations on this subject:

'As this complaint may subsist, when the flow of urine from the bladder is by no means totally suppressed, great caution is required to avoid mistakes on this subject.

'Violent

'Violent efforts to make water are often excited at intervals, and during these strainings small quantities of urine are expelled. Under these circumstances, the disorder may be mistaken for the strangury.

'At other times, a morbid retention of urine subsists, when the patient can make water with a stream, and discharge a quantity equal to that which is commonly discharged by a person in health. Under this circumstance, I have known the pain in the hypogastrium, and distension of the bladder, continue, till the patient was relieved by the catheter.

'And lastly, it sometimes happens, that when the bladder has suffered its utmost distension, the urine runs off by the urethra, as fast as it is brought into the bladder by the ureters. I have repeatedly known this circumstance cause a serious misapprehension of the true nature of the disease.

'In every case of retention of urine which I have seen, the disease might be ascertained by an examination of the hypogastrium, taken in connection with the other symptoms. The distended bladder forms there a hard and circumscribed tumour, giving pain to the patient when pressed with the hand. Some obscurity may arise upon the examination of a very corpulent person; but in all doubtful cases the catheter should be introduced.'

Mr. H.'s directions for the introduction of the catheter are valuable, but too long to be inserted. He prefers, in general, the removal of the catheter after each operation. Several cases are added, which tend to prove a very important fact, that distension of the bladder may subsist, even when there is apparently a natural flow of urine: which the reader will understand from the ensuing cases:

'In the early part of my practice, about forty years ago, I was attending Mr. Hepworth, an elderly man, who laboured under a retention of urine. I had drawn off his water morning and evening for a few days; when I was informed, that he had regained the power of relieving himself. About a pint of urine was shewn to me, as the quantity which he had made in the course of the night with a natural stream. I began to apprehend that my attendance would be no longer necessary; but as he still complained of the same uneasiness in the hypogastrium, I examined the state of the abdomen, and was surprized to find the bladder distended as much as it had usually been before his urine was extracted, and the operation was found to be as necessary as it had been before.

'This case taught me the necessity of continuing to introduce the catheter, till it clearly appears, that the patient can empty his bladder by the natural efforts.'—

'About two years ago I was desired to visit a patient early in the morning, whom I had repeatedly attended on account of a retention of urine. He complained of considerable pain in the hypogastrium, though he had made two quarts of urine in the course of the night. I found his bladder distended, and drew off about a pint of urine, which he had not been able to expel.

'When

'When there has been a necessity for extracting the urine by the catheter during two or three weeks, the power of expelling it voluntarily generally returns by degrees. The propriety of omitting the operation is not to be determined by the quantity of urine which the patient expels, but by the power of emptying the bladder.

'Another source of deception is the involuntary discharge of urine, which sometimes succeeds a retention that is not relieved by the catheter. This is not so frequent an occurrence as the former; but it is highly dangerous, when the proper means of relief are neglected.'

An early introduction of the catheter is recommended in cases of retention.

For the cure of the *Procidentia Ani*, in adults, Mr. Hey advises the removal of the soft tubercles which commonly surround the anus in this complaint. By the inflammation which the operation excites, a firmer adhesion of the rectum to the surrounding cellular membrane is procured, and the tendency to prolapsus is thus obviated.

A case of convulsions, after temporary strangulation, is given to shew the impropriety of large and indiscriminate bleeding, while the powers of life remain almost suspended, after such an accident.

In describing a case which required the operation of Empyema, Mr. Hey observes that one half of the body was œdematous.

We omit several shorter notices of different diseases, which, however, ought not to be overlooked by the medical reader; and hasten to the author's remarks on Amputation.

The succeeding extract will give a general idea of the method which he proposes:

'When a flap is not made, which is usually unnecessary when amputation is performed in the thigh or arm, nothing more is necessary than to amputate with a triple incision, and to preserve such a quantity of muscular flesh and integuments, as are proportionate to the diameter of the limb. By a *triple* incision I mean, first, an incision through the integuments alone; secondly, an incision through all the muscles made somewhat higher than that through the integuments; and thirdly, another incision through that part of the muscular flesh which adheres to the bone, made round that part of the bone where the saw is to be applied. When these incisions are made in their proper places, the integuments and muscles on the opposite sides of the stump will meet each other conveniently, and may be preserved in contact so as to produce a speedy healing of the wound, and a convenient covering for the extremity of the bone.

'The proper distances of these incisions from each other must be determined by the thickness of the limb, upon which the operation is to be performed, making allowance for the retraction of the integuments, and of those muscles which are not attached to the bone.

'I will

'I will suppose the operation to be performed upon the thigh, and the circumference of the limb to be twelve inches, at that part where the division of the bone is intended to be made. The diameter of the limb, in this case, being four inches, if no retraction of the integuments were to take place, a sufficient covering of the stump would be afforded by making the first incision at the distance of two inches from the place where the bone is to be sawn, that is at the distance of the semidiameter of the limb on each side. But as the integuments, when in a sound state, always recede after they are divided, it is useful to make some allowance for this recession; and to make the first incision half an inch below the semidiameter of the limb.

'Supposing the thickness of the integuments to be half an inch, the diameter of the limb after the first incision would be reduced to three inches; the second incision might, therefore, be made at the distance of an inch and half below the place where the bone is to be divided; but it is useful to make some allowance for the retraction of the muscles, particularly the posterior muscles of the thigh, which takes place in them to a considerable degree in the process of healing. These should be divided somewhat lower than the rest of the muscles, if it is wished that the muscular flesh should retract equally on all sides of the stump. The division of the posterior muscles may be begun at half an inch, and that of the anterior at three quarters, above the place where the integuments were divided. The integuments will retract a little both above and below the place where they were divided; but the distance from that place must be computed from the mark left upon the surface of the muscles in dividing the integuments. The edge of the knife should be directed somewhat obliquely upwards in dividing the muscles, and the division should be made through the posterior muscles at one stroke, and through the anterior at another.

'In order to make the third incision, the divided integuments and muscles must be drawn upwards by an assistant, who will generally do this the most conveniently with the aid of a retractor, and who should be cautious to avoid pulling the periosteum from the bone, when the muscles which adhere to it are divided.

'The most perfect union of the soft parts would be produced by making an incision through them all in a conical direction; the apex of the cone being that part of the bone where the saw is to be applied. But such an incision is impracticable in the ordinary mode of operating; nor is it necessary for the formation of a good stump.'

The volume concludes with an account of the excision of the metatarsal bones.—We have omitted to particularize some of the chapters, in which we did not observe any striking remarks or novelties.

We recommend this work to the attention of our readers, as containing sound and judicious views of practice, on many points of great importance; and comprizing a number of cases perspicuously detailed, and highly interesting from their nature. The performance cannot fail to add considerably to the celebrity of the author.

Fer. ART.

ART. V. *Remarks on Currency and Commerce.* By John Wheatley, Esq. 8vo. pp. 270. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1803.

FEW tasks appear to be more easy than that of ascertaining the operation of commerce in enriching states, and shewing in what consists the utility of money: but, on inquiry, the reader will perceive, from the various opinions of political economists, that the solution of these problems is embarrassed with considerable difficulties. Doctrines, which are zealously maintained by some writers as the very ground-work of their theory, are flatly contradicted by others; and principles sanctioned by great names, and generally received as satisfactory, are in a little time disputed and discarded. In fact, the subject is more complicated than the hasty inquirer supposes; and ideas arising from his own narrow observations on the effects of trade, and the properties of money, will not always be found to apply to the commerce of nations, nor afford him a clue by which its mysteries may be unravelled.

We do not venture to affirm that Mr. Wheatley has been completely successful in all his remarks: but we can safely assert that he is not a superficial writer, since he investigates with much attention, argues with rigid accuracy, and states results with perfect clearness. He is of opinion that the whole system of the balance of trade, by which we have hitherto been supposed to acquire wealth, is founded in error; and he labours to refute the principle that nations become rich by an accumulation of money. His maxims and reasoning on these heads may not be absolutely new, but they are so judicious, and so peculiarly deserving of attention under the present circumstances of the nation, that we deem it our duty to allot to them as much space as we can conveniently spare. They are detailed in six chapters, viz. on the Utility of Money, on the Balance of Trade, on Commerce, on the Depreciation of Money, on the Reformation of the Paper-currency of this Country, and on the Reduction of the National Debt by the Depression of Money.

In the first chapter, Mr. W. lays down the following fundamental principles: *That an increase of national stock of specie is an increase of currency and not of capital:—That an increase of currency is not an increase of wealth;—and That no one nation can possess a greater relative currency than another; or accumulate a greater stock of specie than that proportion which is adequate to circulate its produce.*

It is remarked that money, in a state of currency, has no power to augment the wealth of nations; and that its utility consists

consists in forming the measure of value. A distinction is made between currency and capital, though commonly they are regarded as synonymous; and Mr. W. thus reasons in support of his first two propositions:

'Every individual is sensible that, if he possessed so much money, he could command so much produce; and if he possessed so much more money, that he could command so much more produce: and it may be naturally concluded, that, what is true of an individual, must be true of the collective body; and that an increase of money in a nation, must be an increase of wealth. But as in an increase of currency all acquire in the same ratio, unless obstructed by existing contracts, no one will be in a better relative situation than another; no one will receive a greater or less quantity than that proportion, which is competent to maintain him in the same relative position in society. The great Utility of Money is its property as the measure of equivalency. Mankind find out with ready facility whether the money they obtain for their labour or produce can measure the same quantity, or command the same quantity of the necessaries and luxuries of life, which they have been accustomed to receive for it. Their wages or their profits are the measure of that quantity, and no one will submit to an alteration of the measure to his own detriment. No one will suffer his produce to be sold at the same price, when the produce of another is advanced, as it would confound the equality of exchange, and prevent the same quantity of money from being the measure of equivalency between the respective produce of the one, and the respective produce of the other, by making more of the one exchange for less of the other than previous to the augmented currency. The price of all things, therefore, soon becomes commensurate with the increase; and the existing relations between man and man are unalterably maintained in the same state, though all receive a greater nominal income.

'If there were a general increase of currency in this country to such an extent that all could receive as many guineas as they now receive shillings, no one would be in a better relative situation than he is at present. If the peasantry of the country received as many guineas a week, as they now receive shillings, and the gentlemen of property received as many guineas a year, as they now receive shillings, the gentleman and the peasant would still continue in the same relation to each other: and though guineas would be circulated as shillings, no one would receive more for his guinea, than he now receives for his shilling. Money can be of no greater value than the produce for which it will exchange; and if one piece of money would exchange for the same produce as another, they must necessarily be of the same value. The livre in France was once circulated at the value of an English pound, and is now circulated at the value of an English ten-pence: but as it will now only exchange for a four-and-twentieth part of the value for which it would have formerly exchanged, no one is now richer in the possession of four and twenty, than he would formerly have been, in the possession of one. Four

and

and twenty form the measure of value, where one formerly sufficed; and all produce is now estimated at four and twenty, which was formerly estimated at one.

'It is thus, that a nation may be just as rich with a currency of five millions, as with a currency of fifty. The greater or less quantity is no criterion of its wealth. The wealth of a nation consists in the aggregate produce arising from its productive stock; for the equal interchange of which, between man and man, money forms only the measure of value; and whether five pieces, or whether fifty pieces, constitute the measure for the same quantity of produce, is of no consequence. If a nation grew more produce with a currency of five than with a currency of fifty, it would, in proportion to the excess, be more opulent: and, in that case, the five millions would be worth more than the fifty; as any given proportion of the five would exchange for a greater quantity of produce, than a similar proportion of the fifty, and exchanging for more would be of more value.'

The arguments employed by the author in establishing his third proposition are not less forcible:

'In order to shew the impracticability of accumulating a currency in one country, above the relative currency of others, it is only necessary to examine the effect which this attempt has produced in the instance of Spain. Spain has annually received from her American mines between three and four millions of pounds sterling for these last two centuries, and has made every exertion in her power to retain them for her internal circulation; but, notwithstanding her restrictive system, she now possesses a less currency than any nation in Europe.

'Self-interest is the most powerful spring of human actions; and when the regulations of government counteract this principle, the most arbitrary power is incapable of enforcing their observance. The prohibitory laws of Spain were unproductive of their desired effect; the surplus of her currency, that excess which would have enabled her to have circulated her produce at a higher price, was annually divided among other nations, by the import of foreign merchandize; and instead of being occupied by her existing produce, and operating to no other purpose than its own depression, it was annually exported for an increase of produce; and in proportion to that increase, augmented the wealth of the country. Her own interest combined with the interest of other nations to prevent the appropriation of the annual supply to her internal circulation. The detention would have produced no other effect than the depreciation of its value; and to avoid this deterioration of their property, was as much the object of every individual in the country, as it was the object of its government to enforce it.

'In every instance, therefore, where a similar supply is imported, a similar effect must ensue. It cannot be added to the circulating medium of a country, as it would carry the prices of its produce considerably above the produce of other nations, and confound the measure of equivalency. It cannot increase its produce, as the in-

crease cannot be instantaneously effected; and as money will not rest in a state of stagnation till the augmentation take place, it can only be appropriated to the purchase of foreign produce, and exported to the country where it will exchange to most advantage.

'If these observations be correct, it follows as a necessary consequence, that no one nation can possess a greater or less currency than its due proportion; than that proportion, which is competent to circulate its produce, as nearly as possible at par with foreign nations. That in whatever instance it should be augmented above this proportion, foreign produce would be attracted by the advance of its market, and take off the surplus currency. That in whatever instance it should be reduced below this proportion, foreign bullion would be attracted by the cheapness of its market, and supply the requisite addition; and that no permanent variation can be effected in the value of money to prevent its universal agency as a common measure of equivalency.'

Proceeding on the principles exhibited in these extracts, Mr. W. attacks, in his 2d chapter, the theory of the Balance of Trade; and he contends that the statement of the *excess of exports above imports*, displayed with so much satisfaction as indicative of an annual gain from other nations by means of our commerce, and consequently of the progressive opulence of the country, originates in error, and has a tendency to mislead. He observes that this theory stands on a principle directly opposite to that on which an individual merchant estimates his balance, who calculates his gains not on the excess of his exports, but on that of his *imports*; and that, if it were well founded, the quantity of bullion now in this country must be enormous. The indisputable reverse of this fact leads the author to a consideration of the case of the Bank in suspending its cash payments, and to an estimate of the quantity of current coin; which he states (we are persuaded, very far below the mark) at only *five millions*, though it is conjectured that we have had an annual average balance of trade of four millions in our favour for these last forty years. It is a well-known fact that, from 1777 to 1797, upwards of *thirty-four* millions were imported into the mint; if, therefore, there be any truth in Mr. W.'s representation, other causes must have operated to drain us of our specie, than the subsidies which have been sent to foreign princes. He remarks that;

'As in this country we have taken upon ourselves to augment our currency, by the circulation of paper, somewhat above its due proportion; the present scarcity of specie sufficiently evinces, that the Balance of Trade has of late years been, for the most part, unfavourable; and has led to the departure instead of the introduction of money, notwithstanding that an opposite inference may be apparently deduced from the general amount of our coinage, and the

enormous excess of our exports above our imports. But in order to explain this fact, which, however sensibly it may be felt, but little accords with the theory of the Balance of Trade, and the received opinions of the times, it is necessary to investigate the real cause of the difference that subsists in the general amount of our exports compared with our imports.

'One of the principal errors of this theory consists in the inference which is drawn, that an excess of exports above imports necessarily constitutes a favourable balance. But though it be true, that a favourable balance cannot exist without an excess of exports; yet an excess of exports may exist without a favourable balance. The exclusive criterion of a favourable balance, is a favourable course of exchange: and I shall attempt to prove that, notwithstanding there has uniformly been of late years an enormous excess of exports above imports, the balance of trade has been for the most part unfavourable, and has led to the clandestine exportation of our specie.

'A favourable balance of trade, and a favourable exchange, are synonymous terms. It is impossible that one effect can take place without the other. At the time that a considerable debt should be due from us to foreign nations, it is impossible that exchange could be in our favour. As we should have more to pay than we have to receive, the drawers of bills against this country would be more numerous than the remitters of bills in its favour; and as the foreign market would be overstocked, the inclination to sell would exceed the inclination to buy, and, by causing a depression of the value of the bills against us, render the exchange unfavourable.

'And at the time that the balance of trade should be favourable, it is impossible that the exchange could be against us. At the time that we were the creditor country, and had more bills to draw against foreigners than they had to draw against us, the bills against them would necessarily experience a depression in our market, and turn the exchange in our favour.'—

'If, then, the foregoing explanation of our foreign expenditure be correct, it is obvious that the excess of exports above imports, in the Custom House entries, is not conclusive evidence of an uniform balance in our favour; it is apparent, on the contrary, that our commercial balance, notwithstanding this enormous excess, must have frequently been unfavourable, or the general state of our exchanges could not have been adverse in the many instances which have been lately experienced. To this surplus of exports, occasioned by our public disbursements, must be added our private expenditure. Whatever bills are drawn upon this country for the expenditure of British residents abroad, for the payment of dividends to foreigners, who have a credit in our funds, for the salaries of officers belonging to our government and resident in foreign courts, and for other miscellaneous purposes, must be placed as value received against this preponderance of exports.'

The chapter on Commerce proceeds on the obvious principles that no nation can sell to a greater extent than it buys, while money is at the same standard; and that commerce is an ex-

change of equivalents: hence 'it follows as a necessary consequence, that whatever tends to an increase of equivalents, tends to an increase of opulence, and that the commercial wealth of a nation should be estimated by the whole value of its equivalents collectively; and not by that portion only, which returns an equivalent in bullion, which there is no possibility of detaining, and which, when parted with, can only re-purchase the equivalent that bought it.'

To remove the erroneous notions which prevail relative to the superior value of money, the author institutes a comparison between this country and Spain; the latter of which is poor with all her mines, while the former is affluent without them.

An inquiry into the existing state of our commerce leads to another condemnation of the theory of the balance of trade, as illiberal and impolitic; and to some remarks on the colonial trade, including that of the East India Company. We recommend this chapter to the attention of Government. It thus concludes:

'I have endeavoured to shew, that in the regulations of the colonial trade, where we enforce the exportation of produce that would not otherwise be exported, and where we enforce the importation of produce that would not otherwise be imported, and that in this instance of the transit trade, where we prevent its introduction when it would otherwise be admitted, we act in direct opposition to the dictates of sound policy. We have done every thing in our power to force this country to be an emporium for colonial produce, contrary to our interests; and have done every thing in our power to obstruct its establishment as an emporium for foreign produce, when it would materially conduce to our interests. If the prior observations of this work be correct, our present commercial regulations will remain an ever memorable instance of the error into which the collective ability of a great nation may be drawn, by the too easy admission of an illusive theory.'

The various means by which money has been depreciated, whether by adulteration of the coin, by augmentation of the quantity of the precious metals, by increased taxation, or by paper circulation, are next considered: but to the operation of the two latter, particular attention is devoted. Mr. W. justly observes that,

'In whatever instance a factitious money performs the office of real money, and acts at the medium of exchange in the transfer of commodities, it operates to an increase of currency, and a consequent depression of money, in proportion to the extent of its agency, and the number of payments which it is capable of transacting. A reduction in the value of money and an advance in the price of produce, are synonymous terms; one effect cannot take place without the other; and if paper depreciate money, it must advance in a

similar proportion the prices of the articles of subsistence and luxury.'

On this ground, Mr. W. controverts the position of Mr. Thornton that country-bank notes have no tendency to raise the price of subsistence; and, contemplating the gradual depreciation of money, he laments the case of those who have no power of increasing their incomes; contrasting the situation of the landed with that of the funded proprietor:

'A comparison has frequently been made between the advantages of landed and funded property; and the preference has in many instances, though with very little reason, been given in favour of the funds. The public creditor is compelled to receive the same nominal interest, whatever depression takes place in the value of money. He has no means of renewing his contract, and demanding an advance of income proportionate to the increase of currency. His capital suffers the same diminution as his interest. The rise or fall of stocks is problematical, and cannot fairly be brought into the comparison, as it may be at any given moment as much against as in favour of the proprietor. From 1780 he has lost one fourth of his principal and interest, without any possibility of recovery. But though a landlord certainly suffers during the currency of his lease, at the expiration of the term he may invariably raise his rent commensurate with the alteration of the measure of value, and maintain himself in the same relative position in society: his property will ever continue of the same value. The person who twenty years ago invested his money in the funds, will find, that, if he had invested it in land, he would have possessed one fourth more in income and capital, than he can now command; and the further he goes back, the greater will be the difference.'

In the chapter on the Reformation of the Paper Currency of the Country, the author manifests a strong disapprobation of the paper of country-banks; which is condemned as forming an inefficient and dangerous medium of circulation, while its continuance is pronounced to be inconsistent with the stability of the national bank and the general interests of the empire. He is of opinion, therefore, that their circulation should be prohibited; that the Bank of England should possess the exclusive privilege of regulating the whole paper currency of the kingdom; and that our currency should be kept as much as it may be possible below the relative currency of other states, in order to prevent the consequences which would result from a successful competition with rival nations. No more paper should be allowed to circulate than is absolutely necessary; since, as Mr. W. remarks, 'it would be a greater gratification to all, if, instead of receiving a medium of no intrinsic value, they received one of real value.'

The last chapter, on the Operation of the Depression of Money in reducing the National Debt, contains various tables explanatory of this fact, formed on the ratio given in Sir George Schuckburgh's table; by which it appears that £.238 in the year 1700 were equal to £.562 in 1800.

'By applying the arithmetical proportion of Sir George Schuckburgh's table, to the value of the pound sterling, through every ten years of the preceding century, the following statement will be the result of the calculation.

	£.	s.	d.	
'In 1700,	0	8	5½	Were equal to a pound sterling of 1800.'
1710,	0	8	9¼	
1720,	0	9	1¾	
1730,	0	9	8	
1740,	0	10	2½	
1750,	0	11	2	
1760,	0	12	2	
1770,	0	13	7¾	
1780,	0	15	2¼	
1790,	0	17	7¾	
1800,	1	0	0	

'By this alteration in the standard of money, the public have been exonerated from the payment of one-fourth part of the revenue then existing; and the public creditor has been deprived of one-fourth of the principal and interest of the stock which was at that time placed to his credit in the national debt.'

Such are the doctrines contained in the publication before us; which we have been induced to detail by the good sense manifested in them, and with the hope of encouraging Mr. Wheatley to finish that great work of which the present, he says, is little more than a prospectus. Moy.

ART. VI. *An Investigation into the Principles and Credit of the Circulation of Paper-Money, or Bank-Notes, in Great Britain:* as protected or enforced by Legislative Authority, under the Suspension of paying them in Cash; in the Extent of such Paper-Money, the Responsibility attached to it, and its Effects upon Prices of Commodities, individual Income, Agriculture, Manufactures, Commerce; and upon the Course of Exchange with foreign Countries. Together with a Discussion of the Question, Whether the restraining Law in favour of the Bank of England from paying Notes in Money, ought or ought not to be continued as a Measure of the State? By William Howison, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale. 1803.

THE commercial as well as the religious and philosophic world is divided into several opposite sects. In modern times, a strenuous controversy has arisen between those who

may be denominated the *Papirists* and the *Nummists*; the former, who are of no great antiquity, asserting the superior advantages of paper-money, and the latter contending with equal zeal for the pre-eminence of their darling gold. Mr. Howison is one of the old sect; resisting, with all his might, the new doctrines in favour of paper-money, from the excessive circulation of which he predicts very serious evils; and we, who are rather partial to the old school, must confess that we have read his pamphlet with some approbation. Though it be not very correct in point of style, it contains many judicious observations, which, in the present state of the country, merit peculiar attention.

Experience proclaims a warning voice against enormous issues of paper-money: but, lest the example of other countries should fail to produce a proper effect, Mr. H. inquires into the merits of the case, and displays the principles and doctrines which should govern a nation in respect to its circulating medium. He observes that 'Confidence may support paper, but that paper cannot always support confidence;'—that 'Credit founded in confidence is independent of power;'—that 'Gold is not subject to abuses, and cannot be made the means of such irresistible and irretrievable distress to individuals, like Paper-money which rests entirely on opinion, and which by an overstrained system may vanish as a shadow, and in the place of opulence and power leave only the ashes of a rag.'

Mr. H. laments the repeal of that law which prohibited the Bank of England from making any advances to Government, unless on the credit of Parliament; as well as the renewal of the act restricting the Bank from paying its notes in cash; and if his representation be just, the nation has reason to join with him in his lamentations. 'Previously,' says he, 'to the repeal of the law prohibiting any secret understanding between the Government and the Bank Directors, the Bank had the credit of an institution founded on public utility, and subsisting on the rectitude of deportment, which might maintain itself even amidst the wreck of revolution. But now it is evidently embarked in the same bottom and must share the same fate with Government.' Hence the paper of the Bank is considered as the paper of the Government; and the idea of immense loans from the former to the latter is ridiculed:

'The fifteen millions lent to Government after the restraining law, could not have been the property of the Bank; because their capital was little more than eleven millions and a half of three per cent. stock, or in sterling money, if then sold, than a third part of the sum lent; neither in doubling the loan upon circulation in the same manner would more capital be required. The understanding of John Bull

has often been made the subject of ludicrous observation. In no instance has his intellectual discernment been so ill treated, as in his own steward taking his own money out of his own pocket, and charging him with the interest to his bankers for the pretended loan of it.'

The author estimates the quantity of paper-money in circulation, including the notes of country-banks as well as those of the Bank of England, to be little short of thirty millions. These notes, he remarks, cannot be hoarded: no man thinks of keeping them idle, as gold is often kept; they must be pushed into circulation; and this large quantity cannot possibly circulate unless it floats in the increased price of commodities. Nor is this the only public inconvenience; since, while the price of commodities is enhanced by paper-money, the difference must be compensated to the foreigner in the course of exchange.

In the following passage, Mr. H. sums up his argument:

'Excessive circulation of Bank notes beyond the only possible criterion, their convertibility into gold, which the restraining law has done away entirely, would, from my observations, so far as they may be just, appear to be attended with much injury to the community at large in various respects; more particularly, first, in bringing the public under contribution of an annuity to the banks of a million and half, equal to the interest of thirty millions of estimated circulating paper, without any value whatever;—this sum in real money formerly would have been equal to the expense of a campaign in war: secondly, in the diminution of the fixed income of every individual in the state, of one half, or at least of a third; and of course in a proportional deprivation of his comforts: thirdly, in increasing the difficulties to agriculture, to manufactures, and to commerce, by enhancing capital and interest employed in them, by raising the prices of labour and commodities, and by diminishing the consumption: fourthly, in increasing the evils of an unfavourable course of exchange with foreign countries: and finally, in laying the foundation for, and leading directly to a general explosion of all confidence founded on paper credit; and which may be attended by the ruin of many individuals at least, if not by public confusion.'

The system of *discounting* is strongly reprobated. The banker, who receives a discount for the use of his paper, is compared to the keeper of a gaming table; and the frequency of the transaction is represented as absorbing the floating wealth of the country. For this allusion, the Bankers owe Mr. H. no thanks, but they may deem it proper to make a rejoinder.

As the profit of the Bank of England consists in the extent of its paper issues, Mr. H. maintains that its interest will operate to prevent the return of gold from abroad; since by this return the quantity of paper would be diminished. Thus the gains of the Bank and the benefit of the public are represented

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to be at varianee; and the Legislature is required, in order to ward off the ruin of both, to put a stop to the forced circulation of paper-money.

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ART. VII. *Travels in Portugal, and through France and Spain.* With a Dissertation on the Literature of Portugal, and the Spanish and Portuguese Languages. By Henry Frederick Link, Professor at the University of Rostock, and Member of various learned Societies. Translated from the German by John Hinckley, Esq. With Notes by the Translator. 8vo. pp. 500. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co.

THE immediate object of these Travels was not to collect, from an observation of the manners and customs of the Portuguese, such materials as might furnish a volume for publication, but consisted in the more meritorious design of enlarging the boundaries of science, and discovering the mineralogical and botanical riches of Portugal. The Count of Hoffmannsegg, who is stated to be a very zealous friend and patron of natural history, made choice of Professor Link as a companion in his travels, which they pursued together during the years 1798 and 1799: but at this period M. Link was obliged to return to Germany, having left the Count in Portugal, 'investigating, with indefatigable assiduity, the natural history of that country.' The botanical reader will be pleased to hear that the manuscript for the Flora is already prepared, and that the Count has given drawings of the new and unknown plants, with much accuracy and attention to the subject.—After his return, Professor Link consulted different accounts of travels through Portugal, and found that they were in general very defective and erroneous; he, therefore determined to 'seize the pen himself, and defend his friends the Portuguese, by impartially portraying their character, their mode of life, and their agriculture.'

The gentlemen having been thrown on our coast by contrary winds, in their passage from Hamburg; the journal commences with their re-embarkation at Dover for Calais, and gives a description of the country between that port and Paris. After a short stay in the metropolis, and some observations on its state of society at that period, we are conducted through Orleans, &c. to the banks of the Garonne. Having crossed this river near to Montèche, the travellers arrive at the country of the antient Gascons.—The description which Professor Link gives of the people is more favourable than that which we find in Fischer's travels in Spain, which were undertaken about the same period; which we have been perusing and comparing

with the present volume, and an account of which we shall present to the reader in our next Number.

Proceeding to Bayonne, we have this description of the maritime district:

'The country along the coast near Bayonne, where the heaths *(landes)* begin, that extend throughout the department *(Department des Landes)* as far as Bourdeaux, may afford a kind of foretaste of the heaths of Portugal; and the traveller might imagine himself in the vicinity of Braga. The woods consist of cork trees, which are here loftier and more beautiful than the generality of those in Portugal, and of a particular kind of pines *(Pinus maritima Gerard.)*, of which great numbers are seen in Portugal. A greater part is covered with various kinds of heaths peculiar to the South of Europe, and especially to the heaths of Portugal (besides the *Erica vulgaris*, and great quantities of *Erica ciliaris*, *scoparia*, *cinerea*, *vagans*). The sage-leaved cistus is likewise found in great abundance and of a large size; also gromwell *(Lithospermum fruticosum)*, and various other plants. All these give the country an exotic appearance, and render it pleasing at first sight. The sea is skirted with many downs, which produce here and there excellent wine, particularly in the neighbourhood of *Cape Breton*. It gave us great pleasure to find there the clove-gilliflower *(Dianthus caryophyllus)* growing wild, and in its highest flower. The climate near Bayonne is very warm, and in summer very hot, as the plants of the surrounding country also show. The laurel likewise grows wild in the hedges, among which the passion-flower grows quite wild.'

Bayonne is here represented as a pleasant, cheerful little town; while Fischer, on the other hand, observes that, though travellers have often commended this spot, he is much disposed to controvert their opinion. If, however, we put this question to the vote, numbers decide in favour of Bayonne.—The travellers now arrive at the province of Biscay, and here both the Professor and Fischer agree in their description of the character of the Biscayans: but the former is less minute in his account of the manners, &c. of the people, and hastens on till he brings us to the borders of Old Castile. As this barren tract of country can be contemplated by none but the lover of botany with any real pleasure, we shall not delay our readers on the road, but forward them in their way to the capital of Spain. Of this celebrated city we have here a concise account: but the author has chiefly in view the nature of the soil and climate, with the characteristic features of the surrounding country. Fischer, on the contrary, enters largely into the detail of the amusements and customs of the inhabitants of Madrid. The same remark applies also to the description given by these two authors of the town of Badajoz. Without, however, enlarging on the comparison between these two writers,

writers, we shall leave the Spanish traveller, and follow the Professor to the frontiers of Portugal:

'We had scarcely passed the Cayo, before the singular tone of the Portugueze language began to sound in our ears. Most of the words are nearly the same as Spanish, but the pronunciation is extremely different, that of the Portugueze being a full, deep, guttural tone, while that of the Spaniards is a light blowing lisp; the former consisting of long, elegant, high-sounding words the latter of short, broken, chattering sounds. In Badajoz we heard no Portugueze, and at Elvas no Spanish; but whoever has accustomed himself to various pronunciations of the same language, and has a competent knowledge of the Spanish, may easily understand Portugueze without learning it.

'On entering the inn at Elvas, we found the apartments and furniture similar to those of both the Castiles, and of Estremadura; nay both were perhaps still worse. The houses are generally better, and more convenient in Spain; but here we had no occasion to send out for what we wanted, or perhaps ourselves to fetch every piece of bread or glass of wine, as both food and drink are supplied in every Portugueze inn, provided the traveller is contented with Portugueze fare. A dainty person might indeed find many things not suited to his taste; but the inconvenience of having these trifles to attend to, after a long journey, is inconceivable. We met with good and ready attendance, decent fare, and our pretty and good-natured landlady had that animation of manner, that speaking intelligence of countenance, and that well bred politeness, which are so striking in this nation. What a difference between Badajoz and Elvas in this respect! I shall often have occasion to speak of the common people in Portugal; and I often look back with pleasure to the many happy hours I have spent with that friendly nation. But the reader will find my judgement of them very different from that of other travellers, who either were only acquainted with Lisbon, or never gave themselves the trouble of learning to speak the language.'

After various remarks on the intermediate country, which will afford amusement to the naturalist, we are brought to the province of Alemtejo;—a name derived from *Alem*, beyond, and *Tejo*, the Tagus.—Here a vast extent of heath presents itself to the traveller:

'We entered upon these heaths in the finest part of the year, the beginning of spring. The beautiful varieties of heath-plants, and the charming cisti of the south of Europe, were all in their highest bloom, and the mild exhilarating air was full of innumerable perfumes. Were a man suddenly transported from Germany to such a heath, he might perhaps at the first view think it extraordinarily beautiful, and would not for a moment compare it with the heaths of Lunenburg, or even of England. The variety of shrubs is uncommonly great, and their beauty far excels that of our northern plants; besides which they are ever-greens, and most beautiful in winter. One species of heath, the *erica australis*, grows to the height of six feet or more, and is entirely covered

covered with large pleasing red flowers; another called *erica umbellata*, is indeed smaller, but the redness of the flowers is more lively. Among these are the yellow-flowered cisti, *cistus helimifolius, lasianthus, libanotis*, on the yellow ground of which purple spots are often found, *cistus sampsucifolius*, another with large red rose-formed flowers, *cistus crispus*, and another somewhat more rare with pure white tender flowers and of delicate growth, *cistus verticillatus*. We then came to places adorned with the violet-form flowers of the *lithospermum fruticosum*, mingled with the sweet smelling *lavandula stœchas*. Either a bush of juniper, *juniperus oxycedrus* and *phœnicea*, suddenly appears, or rosemary and myrtle, or the creeping oak, overruns all (*quercus humilis Lam.*), to say nothing of a number of beautiful bulbous plants, and other beautiful and very often rare or even unknown plants. In short the plants appeared and disappeared one after another as in a pageant, affording a most charming variety, till some elevated tract covered with cistus set bounds to their beauties, and formed a uniform waste.

'But notwithstanding this variety of plants, these heaths soon become irksome, even where they are most beautiful: for without some cultivation no country can be pleasing, unless it be sublime and romantic. How often, amid these forlorn and solitary wastes, has a row of bee-hives delighted me!'

For the description of Lisbon, with the climate and general scenery of the country, we must refer to the work: but we shall make one extract, which will, we doubt not, contribute to render Englishmen still more attached to the peace and security of their native land *:

'The high walls of the quintas in the town, the vacant and deserted grounds, invite to robbery and murder, which are still farther favoured by the badness of the police. These crimes are always perpetrated with knives, though all pointed knives are prohibited.

'Murders generally arise from revenge or jealousy; robbers are generally contented with threats. The spring is the most dangerous time, and I have known every night marked with some murder. The boldness of the assassins is astonishing. On a fast-day, in a procession in honour of St. Rochus, a man was murdered in open day in the throng, at five o'clock in the afternoon. In the summer of the same year a man was robbed at noon, between the walls near the prince of Waldeck's, who was witness to the transaction. The robbers were even so bold as to attack coaches. But the criminal almost always escaped, the compassion of the Portugueze being such, that every one assists him in his flight. They exclaim Coutadinho! or alas, poor man! and every thing is done to assist him. The punishment of death is entirely done away, and the culprit is sent to the Indies or Angola; a punishment which by no means gives the impression of death, though the climates of both are so unwholesome that destruction is certain.'

* We write this sentence at a moment pregnant, perhaps, with awful events: but let no gloomy idea oppose the remark which has just fallen from our pen!

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The Professor here comments on the remarks which Mr. Murphy has made in his travels into Portugal; (see Rev. Vol. xix. N.S p. 390.;) some of which he allows to be just, while he asserts that others are 'truly ridiculous.'

From Lisbon we are conducted to the northern provinces of Portugal; and here again some statements made by Mr. Murphy in this part of the tour are contradicted by M. Link, and the former is censured for negligence in his investigations. We must leave it to some future traveller in that country, to become an umpire between the parties.—At a league from Obidos, is the small town of Caldas, much frequented on account of its sulphureous waters:

'The town is small, being built in an irregular quadrangular form; but is continually increasing. The houses are small, generally consisting merely of a ground-floor, and only a few have windows. The flooring is very bad almost throughout, and those who would have other furniture, than bad wooden tables and chairs, must bring them. As to beds, table-cloths, and other conveniences, they are wholly wanting; in short every article of furniture must be provided. The inn will accommodate but few people, and would be called wretched in England or France, though here it passes for tolerable. The company who come to bathe always live in private houses. Such are the accommodations prepared for the rich merchants and principal nobility of Lisbon, who visit Caldas twice a year; namely in May and September. As to balls, concerts, plays, and such amusements, they are not to be expected here, and those who seek these enjoyments in places resorted to for pleasure in Portugal, must themselves form them. The company however visit, give tea-parties, play, and at most make small parties to visit some neighbouring place. These are their only amusements. It is however the fashion to go to Caldas. The rich pass the hot season at Cintra, and travel from thence to Caldas; for which reason the company are frequently more brilliant in autumn than in spring.

'In the middle of this place over the warm spring, is a spacious and handsome bathing house, founded in the reign of the late king, and close to it a hospital for poor patients. Besides the spring used for drinking, three others supply four baths; that for the men is thirty-six feet long by nine broad, and two feet eight inches deep. The soil is covered with a white clay and washed sand. The company undress behind a curtain, put on bathing cloaths, and sit upon the ground in the bath, so that the water reaches their neck. There are frequently twelve patients in the bath at the same time, and though the water is constantly flowing it is unpleasant to be obliged to bathe in company, especially to those who come last, to whom the water arrives after washing the rest. It is also unpleasant that strangers are admitted. Nothing however is paid for bathing, except a small present to the attendants. The poor are not suffered to bathe till about noon, when the other company are gone. The rest of the baths, even those appropriated to the ladies, are regulated in

in a similar manner, except that the water in the bath for men is the hottest and of the strongest quality, being from 92° to 93° of Fahrenheit, (from 26° to 27° of Réaumur). The water from all the springs joins and turns a mill near the bathing house.'

The next station worthy of notice is the old city of Coïmbra, distinguished for its university, which was originally founded at Lisbon by Dom Diniz towards the end of the 13th century, but was afterward transferred to this place. It is remarkable that it was a second time removed to Lisbon, and a second time, in 1537, restored to Coïmbra.—The costume of the members is rather singular:

'Both the students and the tutors wear a long black plain cloak, without sleeves, bound behind with bands, and adorned before from the neck to the foot with two rows of buttons set on very thick. Over this is another long black cloak, with sleeves exactly similar to that of protestant priests in Germany. Every one carries a small black cloth bag in his hand, in which are his handkerchief, snuff-box, &c. as their dress has no other pockets. The students always go bareheaded, even in the burning heat of the sun; the tutors and graduates only wearing a black cap. The cloth used being very thin, this black dress must be extremely inconvenient in summer; but neither rank, nor age, nor business can excuse them from wearing it. For whoever is seen in the town without it is fined for the first offence, and afterwards imprisoned. Hence the streets are constantly full of men with these black dresses, which gives the town a melancholy and monkish appearance.'

The want of an university-press, at which works could be printed without expence to the author, and the terrors of the Inquisition, are two grand obstacles to the progress of science in this university.

Journeying northwards, the travellers cross the Douro, and enter the province which bears the name of the river. Here, on the declivity towards the mouth of the river, stands the city of Oporto; of which we have an interesting account, with a comparison between its merits and those of Lisbon. Braga, the capital of this province, was called by the Romans *Augusta Bracharorum*; and Roman coins are often found in the neighbourhood. The present inhabitants are considered in the province as unsociable, and fond of scandal. Proceeding towards the frontiers of Gallicia, we have this account of the monks at the Bernhardine monastery of Bouro:

'As we suffered so great an injury * from these monks, I may, at least, be allowed to make a few remarks upon their order. Though

* The ruin of their barometer and thermometer, which the ignorant young monks had destroyed in their curiosity to examine them.

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their ignorance exceeded every example, yet their idleness almost equalled it. Excepting their accustomed religious ceremonies, a feeble old Abbé suffered all the young monks to run wild; which rendered them as ungovernable as they were ignorant; and a young lay-brother, the apothecary, was the only one who shewed any desire of knowlege. In all the Portugueze monasteries, the monks eat an astonishing quantity, and we had always four courses at dinner. All their dishes, however, are dressed without art, and consist, in great measure, of joints of meat of various kinds. The whole nation indeed are fond of meat, and of eating much. The wine in most of the monasteries is very indifferent, and I never saw it drunk to excess. We were, in general, greater wine-drinkers than the Portugueze, the heat of the climate to which we were unaccustomed requiring an extraordinary quantity; and I even very frequently remarked, that a Portugueze was intoxicated with a few glasses of wine, which a German, and still more an Englishman, would scarcely feel.'

Having made the tour of the northern provinces, the travellers return again to Lisbon: but, in their route, an incident occurred at Thomar, which produced an unwelcome delay:

'I cannot but here relate an incident which happened to us, because it gives an idea of the administration of justice in Portugal. At Thomar the count of Hoffmannsegg wished to embark for Lisbon. In this plan I found no attractions, and proposed to accompany a young Spaniard, the count's secretary, and the servants, by land. But here we met with a difficulty; for we had only one passport, in which the count and myself were mentioned, together with his suite *. We therefore went to the corregedor's, but he being absent had entrusted his business to another person, who made no objection, saying the count might proceed with the portaria, to which he added a declaration why the count travelled alone and without attendants, giving us at the same time a passport, in which he stated that he had inspected the portaria, of which he briefly added the contents. With this passport we went to Santarem, where two officers of justice (*escrivaés* †) immediately appeared, a class of men who throughout the country justly bear a very bad character, and demanded our passports. They refused the declaration of the corregedor of Thomar, as every foreigner ought to have a pass from the intendant or a secretary of state. Both these men went to and fro, spoke secretly together, then came back to us, and, in short, I observed they wanted some money, which however I feared to give

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'* It was not a mere passport, but a portaria, or order from the queen, signed by a secretary of state, to all magistrates and officers, to aid us in all things relative to our affairs and researches into natural history, which was particularly specified. Such a portaria is in that country much more comprehensive than a mere passport; and the judges were bound, in case of need, to provide for our lodging and conveyance.'

'† Notaries.'

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them, lest I should thereby render myself suspected. At length they examined our pockets, and unfortunately found in mine a pointed knife, which being prohibited in Portugal, they threatened me with imprisonment. All this, however, was not serious; they suffered us to eat our supper in peace, and did not come till ten o'clock to fetch us to the juiz de fora. This gentleman, having a large company with him, suffered us to wait a long time in his antichamber, whither he at length came, merely heard the escrivaès, who said, "here are foreigners who have no regular passport," and laconically replied, "to prison." I requested him to read our papers, but he replied, "my orders are given—to prison." Thither the young Spaniard and myself were taken amid the sport of the escrivaès, but no one troubled himself about our servants and baggage. At first we were put into a decent room; but the escrivaès spoke a few words softly to the jailer, who then obliged us to go down some steps into another chamber. This was a shocking place; a horrid stench attacked us, for the privy was situated there, and I soon perceived with horror, that we were in the same room with criminals. Even now, when I reflect on this wretched moment, I can scarcely restrain my feelings; and it particularly vexed me to be told, that it was contrary to good manners to wear my hat. At length I sent to the jailer to know if we could have another room by paying for it. This was all that was wanted; and we were now shown into a good room, our servants were permitted to attend us, and the jailer allowed us to go into his apartment. I was also permitted to send messengers to Thomar and Lisbon.

'At first people seemed disposed to let us remain in prison. Among the prisoners were a number of Spanish merchants, who had remained there several weeks from the same cause as ourselves, and had only been once examined since their first imprisonment. A poor Italian, who was ill, chiefly attracted my pity. He had been brought here because his passport did not agree with the last orders, his money was spent, the poor man was forgotten, and saw no means of liberation. A son of a citizen of Santarem said to us, with a dejected countenance, "you are fortunate, for you know the cause of your imprisonment, which I do not of mine; and I shall, perhaps, be sent for a soldier."

'Meanwhile we soon procured our liberty. I asked the young Spaniard to draw up a petition in Spanish, as I thought he would express himself better in that language, I then translated it into Portugueze, and asked a notary, who was one of the prisoners, to instruct me in the proper form. With this we applied to the juiz de fora, who referred us to the corregedor, and the latter demanded information of the two escrivaès, who had taken us prisoners. The jailer now came to us, saying that the two escrivaès were very poor, that an unfavourable report from them would at least lengthen the affair, and, making the worst of the pointed knife *, advised me to give

'* I had bought it publicly at St. Ubes; for though very strictly prohibited, such knives are publicly sold. L.

'In

give them money. We therefore purchased a favourable report with a couple of crusades, upon which the corregedor liberated us; so that we remained only about eighteen hours in prison.

'We had already met with an incident which may also afford some insight into the administration of justice in this country. We arrived one morning at Cezimbra, where a notary appeared as usual, read the portaria, and took leave of us very politely. Toward evening the count and myself, on our return from a walk to Calheriz, had separated a little way from the town, the better to examine the country, as we could not here lose our way; but the count had scarcely entered the town when some officers of justice met him and demanded his passport. He assured them he had it at the inn, whither they might conduct him and see it; but all he could say availed nothing, and he was taken to prison; where indeed he was placed in a decent apartment, but exposed to the curiosity of a multitude of spectators. Here he was examined even to his shirt, and two pistols being found in his girdle, he was declared a very suspicious person, though the portaria permitted him to carry all kinds of arms; nor till he was thrown into prison was a message dispatched to me to send the portaria. I did so, not doubting the count would immediately return; but with the utmost astonishment I heard the answer of the alcalde, that the juiz de fora being absent he could not decide upon this affair. Fortunately we had spoken with the juiz de fora, who was a good kind of man, at Calheriz, whither a servant was sent in the night with the portaria. Meanwhile I was informed, that if the servant did not return next morning, I must also go to prison. He returned at three o'clock, and brought positive orders immediately to liberate the count; but the officers of justice would not suffer him to go without paying them their fees, which the count gave them, declaring he despised these men too much to trouble himself any farther about them. The alcalde would also have kept the pistols, till the count declared that he would immediately send a messenger to Lisbon with an account of the whole transaction.

'These examples show how much precaution is necessary to protect a traveller from Portugueze justice; and that the alcaldes and escrivaès are a class of men among whom are many rogues. They are indeed generally complained of, and the juizes and corregedores are every where accused of great partiality to persons of rank. But I must add, for the honour of the nation, that in both the above instances every one took our part, compassionated us, endeavoured to shew us attentions, and loaded the officers of justice with abuse.'

M. Link and his companions now made a second excursion to the south-east, and visited the province of Alemtejo: but, as we have already extended our account to considerable length, we must refrain from farther notice of their journal. It is, indeed, wholly impossible for us to give an adequate view

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'In Spain and Italy our English pointed knives are sold; but the purchaser usually breaks off about a sixteenth of an inch at the extremity, in order to be within the limits of the law. T.'

of

of the great variety of interesting particulars contained in this closely-printed volume.— Many parts of the work will be found more interesting on account of the physical and botanical remarks, than from any other species of entertainment: but our extracts will evince that there are pages adapted to the amusement of every description of readers. The translation appears to be executed with fidelity, but with little elegance or correctness, and we consider the publication as valuable, both as it adds to the stock of information respecting Portugal in various points, and as it vindicates the general character of that people from the censures which have been cast on them.

The subjoined Dissertation on the literature of Portugal, and on the Spanish and Portuguese languages, contains some statements and observations which are worthy of attention: but, with respect to literature, Portugal has yet but few attractions. Mar.

ART. VIII. *Memoirs of the Life of Froissart.* With an Essay on his Works, and a Criticism on his History. Translated from the French of M. de la Curne de St. Palaye, by Thomas Johnes, Esq. M. P. Crown 8vo. pp. 218. 5s. Boards. White.

MANY of our readers, without doubt, have heard that Mr. Johnes has been engaged for a length of time in translating the celebrated chronicles of Froissart; and we trust that we may regard the present interesting little publication as announcing the speedy appearance of that desireable work. We have been informed that the translator intends to publish only a very limited number of copies: but we enter our strongest protest against this design, for it is utterly unworthy of a man of a liberal mind. We hope, indeed, that the report is without foundation; and that it will be seen that Mr. Johnes is not one of those who think that claims to rank and fashion can be asserted only by marked contempt for the public.

The perusal of these few pages will excite, in all curious readers, a lively wish to see the productions of the favourite veteran; while it will materially assist the comprehension of them, and account for the distinction which they have always maintained. We here discover with what laudable zeal this patriarch historian pursued his object; and that serious difficulties, journeys long and perilous, tedious attendance, and pecuniary disbursements, could not damp his ardour:—we see what labour it costs to earn the distinction which belongs to an original historian; and at what a distance he is placed from the ordinary herd of compilers.

Alluding to Philippa the Queen of Edward III., we are told that 'during the five years that Froissart was attached to the service of

of this Princess, he travelled at her expence to various parts of Europe, the object of which seems to be a research after whatever might enrich his history.' Some years after the death of this princess, 'he determined in 1388 to take advantage of the peace which was just concluded, to visit the Court of Gaston Phœbus Count de Foix and de Béarn, in order to gain full information in whatever related to foreign countries, and the more distant provinces of the kingdom, where he knew that a great number of warriors signalized themselves daily by the most gallant actions.' In the course of his journey,

'He was fortunate enough to meet with a knight from the country of Foix, who was returning thither from Avignon, and they journeyed together.

'Sir Espaing du Lyon, the name of the knight, was a man of high distinction; he had had considerable commands, and was employed all his life in negociations as delicate as they were important. The two travellers agreed perfectly well together; the knight, who had served in all the wars in Gascony, was equally desirous to learn every thing which related to those that Froissart was acquainted with; and Froissart, more in a situation to satisfy him than any one, was not less curious to be informed of those events in which the knight had borne a part: they mutually communicated all they knew, with a reciprocal complaisance. They rode side by side, and frequently only a foot pace: their whole journey was passed in conversations; by which they mutually instructed each other.

'Towns, castles, ruins, plains, heights, valleys, defiles; every thing awakened the curiosity of Froissart, and recalled to the memory of the Lord Espaing du Lyon the different actions which had there passed under his eyes, or which he had heard related by those who had been engaged in them.'—

'If they arrived at a town before sunset, they profited of the remnant of day to examine the outworks of the place, or to observe those parts of it which had suffered from assaults. On their return to the inn, they continued the same conversations, either between themselves or with other knights and esquires, who might be lodged there; and Froissart never went to bed until he had put in writing every particular he had heard.

'After a journey of six days, they arrived at Ortez. This town, one of the most considerable in Béarn, was the ordinary residence of Gaston Count de Foix and Viscount de Béarn, surnamed Phœbus, on account of his beauty. Froissart could not have chosen a Court more suitable to his views. The Count de Foix, at the age of fifty-nine years, was the most vigorous, the handsomest, and best-made man of that period. Adroit at all exercises, valorous, an accomplished Captain, noble and magnificent, he never suffered any warrior who waited on him to depart without carrying with him proofs of his liberality: his castle was the rendezvous of all those brave Captains who had distinguished themselves in combats, or in tournaments. Their conversations solely ran on attacks of places, surprizes, sieges, assaults, skirmishes, and battles. Their amusements were

games of address and force; tilts, tournaments, and huntings, more laborious and almost as dangerous as war itself. These details deserve to be read in Froissart: I can only imperfectly trace what he has so excellently painted.'

The Count de Foix's reception of the historian was most flattering; and we learn that

'The prince took pleasure to inform him of those particulars of the wars in which he had distinguished himself. Froissart did not gain less information from his frequent conversations with those knights and esquires whom he found assembled at Ortez; more especially from the knights of Arragon and of England, attached to the household of the Duke of Lancaster, who at that time resided at Bourdeaux. They related to him all they knew of the battles of the Kings John of Castile, and Denys of Portugal, and their allies. Among others, the famous Bastot de Maulion, in giving him the history of his own life, told him also that of almost all the wars which had happened in the different provinces of France, and even in Spain, from the time of the battle of Poitiers, at which period he first bore arms.'

The reader will have some idea of Froissart's claim to the gratitude of posterity, from a perusal of the following extracts:

'Froissart had been present at all the feasts which were given on the marriage of the Duke of Berry, celebrated the eve of Whitsunday at Riom, in Auvergne. He composed a pastoral for the morrow of the nuptials; then, returning to France with the Lord de la Riviere, he went to Paris. His natural activity, and his ardour for information, with which he was incessantly occupied, did not permit him to remain there long. We have seen him in six months go from the Blaisois to Avignon; then to the county of Foix; from whence he returned again to Avignon, and cross Auvergne to go to Paris. One sees him in less than two years successively in the Cambresis, in Haynault, Holland, Picardy, a second time in Paris, at the extremity of Languedoc; then again at Paris and at Valenciennes; from thence to Bruges, Sluys, in Zealand, and at last in his own country.

'He accompanied into the Cambresis the Lord de Coucy to the castle of Crevecœur, which the King had just given to him. He relates to him all he had seen, and learns from him the different particulars of the negociations between France and England.

'After having staid fifteen days in his own country, he passed a month in Holland with the Count de Blois, entertaining him with the history of his travels. He then goes to Lelinghen, to learn the details of the negociations for peace, which were carrying on at that place. He is present at the magnificent entry which Isabella de Baviere makes into Paris.'—

'What he had learnt relative to the war in Spain did not satisfy him; he felt a scruple at only having heard one side; that is to say, the Gascons and Spaniards, who had been attached to the King

of Castile. It was the duty of an exact and judicious historian to know also what the Portuguese had to say on this subject: and, on the information he had, that numbers of that nation were to be found at Bruges, he went thither.

'Fortune served him beyond his hopes; and the enthusiasm with which he speaks of it, paints the ardour with which he was desirous of a perfect knowledge of facts. On his arrival, he learnt that a Portugueze knight, "a valiant and wise man, and of the Council of the King of Portugal," whose name was Juan Fernando Portelet, had lately come to Middleburgh, in Zealand.

'Portelet, who was on his road to Prussia to join in the war against the infidels, had been present in all the wars of Portugal. Froissart immediately sets out, in company with a Portugueze, a friend of the knight; goes to Sluys, embarks, and arrives at Middleburgh, where his fellow-traveller presents him to Portelet.

'This knight, "gracious, amiable, and easy of access," relates to him, during the six days they passed together, every thing that had been done in Portugal and Spain, from the death of King Ferdinand until his departure from Portugal. Froissart, equally pleased with the recitals of Portelet, as with his politeness, took leave of him, and returned home; where, having arranged all the information he had acquired in his various travels, he composed a new book, which makes the third of his history.'—

'It has been shewn with how much pains and fatigues Froissart had visited the greater part of the Courts in Europe. Admitted into the palaces of the greatest Lords, he insinuated himself into their confidence to so great a degree, that they not only related to him many particulars of their own lives, and of those events in which they had had a share, or been eye-witnesses; but they discovered to him sometimes the secret of the resolutions which had been entered into in the councils of the Cabinet, upon the most important affairs: he never failed to take advantage of his conversations with those with whom he could converse and interrogate with greater freedom.'

We have bestowed the more attention on this small volume, on account of its relation to the expected appearance, in English, of the productions to which it bears so much reference. M. de St. Palaye's criticisms on his author are sensible, just, and candid; he vindicates him successfully from the hacknied imputation of a mercenary partiality to the English; while he ably states, and fairly and satisfactorily estimates, the merits of his editor, Sauvage.

The translation is apparently faithful, but not polished nor correct; and we were surprized to find that such inaccuracies as the following could have escaped the pen of Mr. Johnes: 'I have three of different dates *to* those he mentions.' 'He mangles them *near* as *bad* as old Froissart, &c. &c.' We hope that he will take care not to allow similar negligencies to deform the pages of his promised splendid publication. Jo.

ART. IX. *Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy, Vol. VIII.*

[*Article concluded from pp.* 71—77.]

IN resuming our analysis of this volume, we turn first to the consideration of those papers which, in our former article, we left unnoticed in the class of

SCIENCE.

A Description of a Reflecting Level, or an Artificial Horizon for taking Altitudes of the Celestial Bodies, &c. on Land by Hadley's Quadrant; with some Remarks on different Levels. By the Rev. James Little.—There are two obvious ways of procuring an artificial horizon, one by the horizontal surface of a fluid, the other by adjusting a plane surface at right angles to a plumb line; and both methods depend on the same principle. The author of the present memoir follows the second method; because, the surface of a fluid being very liable to be ruffled by the agitation of the air, it is only at particular times, and with great care, that the first method can be used. Of the construction of Mr. L.'s instrument, however, even with the help of verbal description and figures, it is not very easy to form an adequate notion; and without actually inspecting and trying an instrument made accordingly, we dare not pronounce on its uses and advantages.

On the Orbits in which Bodies revolve, being acted on by a centripetal Force varying as any Function of the Distance, when those Orbits have two Apsides. By the Rev. J. Brinkley, A.M. *Andrews' Professor of Astronomy in the University of Dublin.*—In the 9th section of the *Principia*, Newton finds the angle between the apsides in those orbits only that are nearly circular: but this method cannot give the motion of the apsides in excentric orbits; one reason for which is, that then the terms of $(T-X)^n$ expanded after the second $(-nT^{n-1}X)$ would have a ratio not less than any assigned ratio to the first and second. The direct and accurate solution of the problem is to be sought in the 8th section. The general expression for the fluxion of the angle is $\frac{KN}{CI}$ or $\frac{Q \times IN}{A^2 \times \sqrt{ABFD-Z^2}}$ or $\frac{Q.A\cdot}{A^2\sqrt{ABFD-Z^2}}$ and $ABFD = \int \varphi A\cdot$; if φ be the function of the distance which expresses the force; and consequently the fluxion of the angle $= \frac{Q.A\cdot}{A^2\sqrt{\int \varphi.A\cdot - \frac{Q^2}{A^2}}}$. Hence, if the integral of this fluxionary expression could in all cases be exhibited, we should only have to substitute for A the two constant values of the distance when

when the body was at an apse, in order to have the angle between the apsides:—but such is the state of analysis, that, instead of exhibiting the integral in finite terms, we are skilful analysts if we can approximate to it by means of convergent series.

Mr. Brinkley finds the angle between the apsides by means of a series ascending by the powers of the excentricity of the orbit; and his method is nearly as follows:—By the known equation to the ellipse, if e be the excentricity, and a the semi-axis major, then a distance $1+x=\frac{a(1-e^2)}{1-e\cdot\cos.\theta}$ (θ true anomaly); and consequently $x=$ (if a the semi-axis be put $=1$) $\frac{e(\cos.\theta-e)}{1-e\cos.\theta}$. Hence, by expanding, we have x ascending by powers of the excentricity and of cos. θ; or, by substituting for $(\cos.\theta)^n$ the series in terms of cos. θ, cos. 2θ, cos. 3θ, &c. we have x expressed by a series of the cosines of multiple arcs ascending according to the powers of the excentricity (e); and by the multinomial theorem we have x^m, and consequently x^2, x^3, x^4, &c. by like series.

Suppose, now, the force to vary as $\frac{1}{y^2}-cy$ $(1+x=y)$; then the fluxion of the angle between the apsides is of the form $m\theta\cdot\times\frac{1}{\sqrt{(1-c\frac{2x+x^2}{n})}}$ Expand the denominator, and substitute for x^2, x^3, &c. the values found as above in terms of cos. θ, cos. 2θ, cos. 3θ, &c.; take the integral of each term; and the angle between the apsides comes out in a series of the sines of multiple arcs arranged according to the powers of the excentricity. In the case before us, when the force $a\frac{1}{y^2}-cy$, and the body comes to the lower apse, the angle between the apsides is $180^\circ\times\sqrt{(\frac{1-c}{1-4c+ce^2})}\times\left\{1-\frac{ce^2}{4(1-4c+e^2.c}+\&c.\right\}$ the limit of which quantity, that is, its value by diminishing e, is $180^\circ\sqrt{\frac{1-c}{1-4c}}$)

'This proposition (says Mr. B.) is applicable to the lunar orbit. The limit of the result is the same as found by Sir Isaac Newton. Some authors have conceived Newton's conclusion erroneous, and with the same law of force have found the motion of the apsides twice as great. Walmsly, particularly, has imagined, that the principles of the 9th section give the true angle between the apsides only when the force varies according to a simple law of the distance. In his tract, "De Inæqual. Lunæ," he finds the motion of the apsides, by computing the time

a body takes in acceding towards the centre a space equal to twice the excentricity, when impelled by a force which is the difference of the centrifugal and centripetal forces. This time he compares with half the periodic time, and thence deduces the motion of the apsides to be twice as great as by the principles of the 9th section. Frisius, observing that Walmsly in his method had omitted the disturbing tangential force as of no effect in its mean quantity, endeavours to correct his solution by using the mean velocity of the moon in octants, and her mean periodic time as affected by the tangential force. He then finds the result the same as Walmsly. But upon examining his method, it will be seen it does not differ essentially from Walmsly's. Increasing the velocity, and decreasing the periodic time, does not affect the angle between the apsides. The motions of the apsides in orbits little excentric, as the above and next proposition shew, almost entirely depend upon the variation of centripetal force. The variation of the force in Walmsly's and Frisius's methods will, upon examination, be found to be precisely the same as Newton's, and therefore the motion of the apsides ought to be the same. The errors in the processes of Walmsly and Frisius are exactly alike. The space used by them for finding the time is only an approximation to the excentricity. At the end of the space the velocity is evanescent, and from that circumstance the fluent of the fluxional expression of the time must be erroneous.

'Taking $e=,055$, as in the lunar orbit, the angle between the apsides will differ about 4 seconds from the limit, consequently the error in the mean motion of the apsides of the lunar orbit, by neglecting the excentricity, is only 8 seconds in a revolution.

'In the lunar orbit referred to the ecliptic, the perturbing force in the direction of the radius vector is expressed by a function of that radius vector, and of the angular distance of the moon from the sun; and the perturbing force in a direction perp. to the radius vector, is expressed by another function of the same quantities. The former force in its mean quantity is expressed by a function of the radius vector only. The mean quantity of the latter $=0$. It has therefore been often imagined, that the mean motion of the lunar apogee might be investigated, by considering the moon acted upon by a centripetal force, expressed by a function of the distance only. The arguments for this opinion are certainly plausible, but have by no means the weight of demonstration. The result shews, that such an opinion rests upon no solid foundation. It does not appear to be possible to investigate the mean motion of the lunar apsides, except from the general expressions of the forces in direction of the radius vector and in the direction perp. thereto.'

Mr. Brinkley adds another proposition, concerning the angle between the apsides when the force varies as the 11th power of the distance; and he deduces this result, 'that the motion of the apsides will always be affected by the excentricity of the orbit, except when $n=1$ or -2.'

On

On determining innumerable Portions of a Sphere, the Solidities and spherical Surfaces of which Portions are at the same Time algebraically assignable. *By the Rev.* J. Brinkley, A. M.—At the end of the 17th century, Viviani, a Florentine mathematician, proposed (according to the fashion of the times) a problem, in which it was required so to pierce an hemispherical vault with windows, that the remainder of the surface should be quadrable. The problem is solved by erecting two cylinders on the plane of a great circle of the sphere, having for their bases two circles described on the two radii of the diameter of the great circle, as diameters; and these cylinders being produced, take from the surface such quantities that the remainder is algebraically assignable. The same construction determines likewise a portion of the solidity of the sphere that is assignable: which circumstance, as the result of an analysis not communicated, was announced by M. Bossut in the second volume of the Memoirs of the French Institute; and a demonstration of it was given by Mr. Woodhouse, in the Phil. Trans. for 1801, (first part,) by means of double integrals. Mr. Brinkley, however, thinks that this solution, and those of Euler relative to the same subject, are less simple than the problem admits: but he chiefly intends to shew that 'there are innumerable constructions by which portions of a sphere may be obtained, so that the spherical superficies and solidity of each portion are accurately assignable.' This is easily manifested by taking the two fluxionary expressions for the solidity and surface, which are $\frac{(r^2-z^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}}{3}\,\varphi\cdot$, and $r\times(r^2-z^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}\,\varphi\cdot$ * which admit algebraical integrals in many other cases besides that in which $\varphi\cdot = z\cdot\times(r^2-z^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$. There is, indeed, no direct analysis for obtaining these cases: but they appear on substituting for $\varphi\cdot$ certain differential expressions, functions of z, which by *trial* are found to answer.

Mr. Brinkley obtains the above fluxionary expressions for the solidity and surface without the use of double integrals, and by the aid of some properties derived from the sphere; and certainly, therefore, by a method more *simple* than that of double integrals, if by such an expression we understand a method more *intelligible* to the generality of students.

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* If S be the solidity, then $S = \frac{\iint r\,zz\cdot}{\sqrt{r^2-z^2}}\cdot\varphi\cdot$ when integrated relatively to $z = \int (r.\sqrt{r^2-z^2}\pm C)\,\varphi\cdot = \int r\sqrt{r^2-z^2}.\,\varphi\cdot$ in the case above quoted.

The fame of this new Academy, in respect of pure science, is likely to be ably sustained by the learned and ingenious author of this and the preceding memoir.

Remarks on some sceptical Positions in Mr. Hume's Inquiry concerning the Human Understanding, and his Treatise of Human Nature. *By* Richard Kirwan, Esq. LL.D. F.R.S. and P.R.I.A. —"It is almost necessary, (says Lord Bacon,) in all controversies and disputations, to imitate the wisdom of the mathematicians, in setting down in the very beginning the definitions of our words and terms, that others may know how we accept and understand them, and whether they concur with us or no. For it cometh to pass, for want of this, that we are sure to end there where we ought to have begun, which is in questions and differences about words." If this advice had been followed, the remarks contained in this paper, at least in their present form, would perhaps never have appeared. Mr. Hume, with all his paradoxes and excentricities, was on the whole a clear and distinct writer; his assertions might not always rest on the stability of truth, but almost invariably they were intelligible, and in a fit and prepared state for discussion; that is, they were not rendered doubtful by the mists and clouds of loose terms and phrases.

In answering Mr. Hume, as in answering any other writer, we ought, in fairness, to admit such significations of his terms and expressions as the context shews it to have been his wish that they should bear; even if such significations be somewhat remote from the usual and ordinary import. Unless this rule be observed, discussion may succeed discussion, and volumes be fruitlessly multiplied. In our opinion, and as we hope to shew, Mr. Kirwan has not conformed to this rule.

The first part of Hume's labours, on which the author animadverts, occurs in the third section of the Treatise of Human Nature; where Mr. H. asserts that the proposition, affirming 'that whatever begins to exist must have a cause of existence,' is not intuitively certain; and Mr. Kirwan's remarks on this position are as follow:

'To me, however, the proposition alluded to, namely, *that whatever begins to exist must have a cause of its existence,* conveys intuitive certainty, a certainty not grounded on the relations he mentions, but on that of causation implied in the very terms of which that proposition consists, for the beginning of existence or the transition from non-existence to existence is evidently a change from nothing to something; now a change of any kind implies an action of some being or other, as it enters into the definition of an action, an action being such a disposition of a being as that a change results from it. But it cannot be the action of the being that begins to exist, as is evident: it must

must therefore be the action of some other being. Now a being from whose action the existence of another being results, is what is denominated its *cause:* the relation of causation is therefore included in it, and inseparable from the conception of *beginning* existence.'

Now the position that Mr. Hume controverts, it must be confessed, is not of such distinctness with regard to its terms, as immediately to be either admitted or denied: but what a variety of *dicta*, of disputable assertions, and of ambiguous expressions, does his antagonist pour upon us! How does it appear that the beginning of existence is a change from nothing to something? What is meant by the transition from existence to non-existence? What are these but words, mere words?—We see only things: a seed one month, a plant the next. How does it appear that a change of any kind implies an *action* of some being? If we would reason justly, we must conceive distinctly, and illustrate (or more properly on these occasions give meaning to) our words by instances and cases.

Mr. K. then controverts an assertion of Hume, "that it is easy for us to conceive any object non-existent this moment, and existent the next." Now if *conceiving an object* be made to mean, *calling up the image of that object*, this, from the mere signification of terms, is impossible; and, as Mr. H. is in general tolerably accurate, such an import of the expression, conceiving an object non-existing, seems to be forced upon him.

The point next attacked is one which Hume strenuously laboured to establish; namely, that, in no case, the relation between cause and effect can be discovered *à priori*, or by reasoning, but is solely collected from experience. This great point, however, is but slightly touched by Mr. K.; who endeavours to subdue Hume by authority, and by referring to Euler's and Maupertuis' memoirs in the Berlin Transactions. It is not now our business to examine those memoirs: but their authors have philosophized most wonderfully, if they have proved 'that, if we were brought suddenly into the world, we should at first infer that one billiard-ball would communicate motion to another upon impulse.' We do not admire this reference to authority. Hume's position is clear; and, if false, it might have been overthrown in a few words. Euler and Maupertuis knew much more of astronomy, geometry, and analytics, than Hume: but they were inferior to him in acuteness, discrimination, and subtle reasoning.

In his observations on Hume's remarks relative to *custom* or *habit* being the principle of our reasoning concerning matters of fact, Mr. K. has fallen into several inaccuracies. He observes that a *reflecting* mind must soon discover that the whole system

system of nature has hitherto been governed by *general* laws. If the laws be *general*, then, if there be meaning in words, from similar causes we may infer similar effects in the same circumstances: but then is it not clear that, by the use of the word *general*, the difficulty is passed by, which Hume was endeavouring to surmount? In many instances, instead of a precise argument, Mr. K. presents us with a delusive generality; and the remaining part of the observations on this head, however creditable to his piety, would have been disputed by the sceptical philosopher whom he opposes.

Mr. Hume valued himself highly on his essay on Miracles; and we learn from the present paper that he told Mr. K. that twenty-two answers had appeared; hinting that, if any one had been satisfactory, the others would have been judged superfluous. From the *number of answers*, however, Mr. Kirwan infers a different conclusion; and he thinks that the arguments in that essay are incompatible with so many incontrovertible truths, that their falsehood may be variously demonstrated by various persons. Is this an ingenious, or a satisfactory deduction? If Hume's essay contained so many false assertions, who would have disgraced himself by answering it?

Mr. K. lays down what he calls the general sources of fallacy scattered through the essay; the first of which consists in the indefinite signification of the term experience, and the second in Hume's ascribing the same immutability to the laws governing corporeal nature with those that are inherent in the nature of moral agents. The present author, however, does not clearly make out his point. It is difficult either to give or to refuse assent to general statements, from which particular instances and illustrative facts are excluded.

In his essay, Mr. Hume uses these plain words; "a weaker evidence can never destroy a stronger." Now it should seem that a person could not well misunderstand this expression, nor justly withhold his assent from it: yet we are told that the proposition is radically wrong; for, as if God and nature had fixed one essential unalterable signification on the term *Evidence*, Mr. K. asserts that 'all evidence is equally strong, and a weak evidence is no evidence.'

Again; on Mr. H.'s inference "that the evidence of the truth of the Christian Religion is less than the evidence of the truth of our senses," the author observes that this also is a mistake: for

'The evidence of our senses, being immediate, is more easily attained than that of the truth of christianity, which results from a comprehensive view of the numerous arguments that produce it; but this evidence, when once attained, is equal to that of our senses.

Thus

Thus the evidence resulting from the complex demonstrations of Apollonius or Archimedes is as strong as that of the primary axioms of geometry, though much more difficultly attained; the evidence of transmitted testimony is frequently as strong, and as justly excludes all doubt, as the evidence of our senses. Can any one now doubt that such persons existed as William the III, Henry the VIII, or even Julius Cæsar, or Alexander, &c. or of the existence of Rome, Constantinople, or Jerusalem, any more than if he had seen them?"

Now are not these conclusions *consequent only* from an arbitrary position that *all evidence is equally strong*; and is it not clear that Hume could not attach that signification to the term Evidence, which Mr. K. has fixed on it? The instances from Apollonius and Archimedes furnish only the false glare of a fallacious illustration.

In the same page, the author again *refutes* Hume, as he had just before refuted him; that is, by supposing that the meaning which he assigns to the words *certainty* and *evidence*, essentially and exclusively of all other signification, belongs to them. Did Mr. K. never hear of the disputes respecting the *vis viva?*

"In all cases of probability," says Mr. Hume, "we must balance the opposite experiments, and deduct the smaller number from the greater, in order to know the exact force of the superior evidence, *or rather probability.*" The last three words are not in the octavo edition of the essays: but, even supposing that they were there, can any meaning be more clear and distinct than that which Mr. Hume designed to convey by the sentence? Yet Mr. K. makes an effort to overturn it, by opposing to the obvious meaning of probability which Mr. H. intended it should have, that *mathematical* meaning which certain geometricians within these hundred years, for *convenience and precision, have arbitrarily fixed on it.* A stronger disposition to cavil, or a more complete entanglement in verbal mazes, it is difficult to conceive. In the same spirit and method of refutation, the author proceeds in his attacks on Mr. Hume. One position of the latter is *proved* to be wrong, because *marvellous* and *extraordinary* are words which *cannot be used* as synonymous.

Many other instances of similar reasoning present themselves: but we have produced a sufficient number, and have furnished a clue to Mr. Kirwan's system. He seems to labour under the unhappy notion that words have a fixed immutable signification which invariably belongs to them; and we cannot but think that he has here quitted his proper province: though an acute, active, and sagacious chemist, he seems not properly qualified for metaphysical disquisition. He knows facts in all their varieties of existence and combination, but not the subtle-

ties

ties of words and the intricacies of phrases. The object and end of his remarks are good and laudable, but we like neither the manner nor the substance of them. Hume was a determined sceptic, and raised objections against our religion which we should ever be glad to see overthrown. We therefore approve Mr. Kirwan's zeal, but here we stop: no cause, in our opinion, can be allowed to sanctify, and keep apart from scrutiny and censure, unfair means of support and defence. If we suffer with impunity the rules of just argumentation to be violated for the sake of a good cause, we provide for the future support of a bad one; while heresies in Philosophy and Religion will again spring up, and the times of fierce verbal disputation once more appear.—We have freely expressed our sentiments, and, as we think, have done our duty. We are no bigots to Mr. Hume's opinion; we think highly of Mr. Kirwan's abilities; and we belong to no lodge of Illuminés, nor any set of Encyclopedists.

Of the Variations of the Atmosphere. By Richard Kirwan, Esq. &c.—We have here a very interesting and learned memoir, and large enough for a separate treatise, consisting of above 200 pages. It contains, as might be conjectured from the talents and assiduity of its author, many valuable facts and good inferences; and, as it is reasonable to expect in a subject of such uncertainty, many hypotheses and conjectures open to controversy. If we might presume to suggest advice to the author, we should say that he would have done well in employing more time in arranging his facts, and in reducing them to a more systematical form.

It would require a very long discussion to examine the several parts of this elaborate paper: but we shall make an extract relatively to the temperature of the winter months, which highly merits attention:

'By winter months I understand those of November, December, January, and February. The temperature of these months has presented some extraordinary phænomena hitherto deemed inexplicable, or at least not fully accounted for, though they appear to me connected with and dependent on a fact suggested by that eminent philosopher and mathematician Dr. Halley, so long ago as the latter end of the seventeenth century.

'The first phænomenon is, that during the winter months, the temperature of the higher strata of the atmosphere is often warmer than that of the lower.

'Thus the temperature of the summit of Arthur's seat, near Edinburgh, though only 684 feet above the base of Hawk-hill observatory, was, on the 31st of January 1776, found to be 6° warmer than the temperature below. Phil. Trans. 1777, p. 777 and 728. At about

about eleven o'clock in the forenoon, M. de Luc tells us, that in winter he sometimes found the temperature on the summits of mountains from 2500 to 3000 feet high, exactly the same as that of the plains. Modif. § 203. A circumstance that never occurs in summer. Count Fraula, in the 3d volume of the Memoirs of Brussels, has shewn by experiments, that thaws begin above and are gradually propagated downwards; Messier, in the Memoirs of Paris, 1776, p. 19, having placed two thermometers, one at 20 feet above the ground and another 54 feet higher, observed this latter to stand constantly some degrees higher than the former, and in one instance six degrees, on the first day of February 1776, though the weather was serene and the wind at east, when these observations were taken. Ibid. p. 16. The cold below has been attributed to the frost that still remained unthawed; but granting that its influence could reach to the height of 20 feet, the question is, whence proceeded the change in the temperature of the upper atmosphere, which some short time before was much colder? It evidently did not proceed from the earth, as it constantly does in summer.

'The second remarkable phænomenon is that the North Pacific Ocean, above latitude 40°, is much colder than the North Atlantic, betwixt the same parallels. The interior parts of Siberia, east of longitude 100, are much colder than the parts equally distant from that meridian on the western side. The coast and interior of the western regions of America are much colder above latitude 40° than the corresponding tracts of the European continent.

'A third singular circumstance is, that barometers, in the northern parts of Europe at least, generally stand highest in the months of December, January, and February. This has been observed almost constantly at Petersburgh during ten years, (IX Comment. Petrop. p. 325.) that is from 1726 to 1736, and during eleven years at Abo, that is from 1750 to 1761. 25 Schwed. Abhand. p. 112; and by Muschenbr. in Holland, in the year 1728. La Cotte also observes, that the highest and lowest states of the barometer occur in the winter months. 44 Roz. Jour. p. 232. It is also well known that the smallest variations occur within the tropics, but gradually increase as we recede from them. Ibid.

'Now the fact stated by Halley, and with which all the above phænomena appear to me to be connected, is, that the equatorial air, and that of the tropic to which the sun approaches, "being rarefied by heat and pressed upon by the colder air, rises and diffuses itself above, forming a current in a contrary direction to the subjacent inferior current of the colder air; so that a N.E. wind below is attended with a S.W. wind above, and a S.E. below with a N.W. above." Here his statement ends, but the last part of it is erroneous, or at least ambiguous; for from it one would be apt to deduce the existence of two simultaneous superior currents, one on the northern and the other on the southern side of the Equator, whereas he most probably meant two successive currents, as he tells us that it is the air of the tropic to which the sun approaches that flows in a contrary direction to the colder air below; now as the sun cannot at the same time approach both tropics, it follows that these currents, like the sun's

sun's approaches must be successive; so that when the sun is in, or approaches to the southern tropic, that is, during the winter of the northern hemisphere, a S.E. current prevails in the upper regions of our hemisphere, and when the sun, during our summer, approaches to, or is in the northern tropic, a N.E. wind prevails in the upper regions of the southern hemisphere; and in fact this equatorial intumescence must necessarily flow and diffuse itself in that direction in which it meets with least resistance, and it meets with least resistance in blowing towards that hemisphere in which at equal heights the air is most rarefied; now when the sun is in, or approaches to the northern tropic, winter reigns in the southern hemisphere, therefore the lower sections of the atmospheric columns are more condensed by cold, and consequently the upper sections of those columns are proportionably rarer (supposing the absolute weight the same) than the corresponding sections of the northern hemisphere, where, from the great expansion occasioned by the heat below, a greater part of their mass reaches to the same height as the more rarefied part of the southern columns. Therefore during our summer, or the winter of the southern hemisphere, the greater part of the intratropical intumescence flows to the *south*. Halley adds also to the *east*, in order to preserve the equilibrium; but this seems a mistake, the equilibrium is supported by the incessant circumvolving flow below. The direction of the superior current is guided only by the greater or lesser resistance it meets with; it must move, as he himself says, "*from* those parts where the greatest heat is," and consequently towards the colder, which at that height must be the rarer, and offer least resistance; now the western parts, over which the sun's influence has not as yet been exerted, are evidently colder than the eastern, over which the sun has already passed, therefore the superior current is directed westward, or in other words a N.E. wind prevails above. The reverse takes place in the northern hemisphere during our winter, or in other words a S.E. wind prevails in the upper regions of our atmosphere.

'Again, another difference must be remarked betwixt the direction of the trade winds below and that of the superior current. The trade winds are chiefly easterly, with only a few points to the north or south, according to their situation on the north or south side of the equator, commonly one or two, rarely more. But the direction of the upper current is chiefly to the north or south, according to the tropic the sun approaches, with only a few points westwards, as the greatest cold prevails in the northern or southern quarters.

'The height above the level of the sea or surface of the earth, at which this intumescence begins to overflow, is that at which its density notably surpasses that of the aggregate of the adjacent extratropical columns at the same height, that is about $\frac{1}{35}$ or $\frac{1}{36}$th, and even still less.

'To state this point more clearly, we must take a general survey of the temperatures of the different aggregates of air thus compared, confining ourselves to the northern hemisphere, as best known, and to the *winter* season.

'The equator and tropics lie chiefly over sea, but partly over land, and the temperatures of each of these are very different.

'Mean

Mean heat of the equatorial air - -	84°
——— of the supra-marine S. intra-tropical air	85°
——— of ditto incumbent over land -	98°
——— supra-marine N. intra-tropical air	80°
——— of ditto incumbent over land -	90°
At the level of the sea and surface of land, mean of all	87°
Mean heat of the extra-tropical supra-marine air in this season, from latitude 23° to latitude 33°	66°
Ditto of that incumbent over land -	70°
Mean of both at the level of the sea and surface of the land - - -	68°

'To represent the action of these on each other, we shall suppose each to form a distinct column, and both columns to be contiguous to each other, and each to support mercury in the barometer to the height of 30 inches, at the surface of the earth.

'And here it is plain in the first place, that, as both are of equal weight, the intra-tropical column, being more expanded by heat, must reach to a greater height than the colder and less expanded extra-tropical air. But that at a certain height the weight and density of the intra-tropical air must be considerably greater, and consequently that this air must flow over or into the other, will now appear by shewing the elevation that mercury would stand at in each, at that given height.'

Mr. K. then gives the calculation; after which, he states that a current of air, in passing through 48 degrees of latitude, would lose only 8 degrees of heat; and he adds:

'From these principles, the explication of the above-mentioned phænomena is clearly deduced.

'For 1mo, The superior strata of the atmosphere are obviously warmer than the lower, being occupied by the superior current, whose heat is gradually communicated to the lower strata, until at length it becomes uniform, as in the cases observed by De Luc.

'2do, The North Pacific Ocean is colder than the North Atlantic between the same parallels, because the superior current that passes over the North Pacific is entirely *supra-marine*, and for the same reason eastern Siberia is much colder than its more western tracts. But the current that passes over the eastern parts of the North Atlantic is in great measure *supra-terrene*, for it issues from Guinea, Senegambia, and a skirt of the great desert. So also the current that passes over the western parts of Siberia, being derived from Siam, Ava, and the more southern islands. But the current that passes over the eastern regions of North America is entirely *supra-marine*, as it originates on the Atlantic Ocean; whereas that which passes over the corresponding European tracts, Hungary, Poland, Germany, Sweden, France, Spain, Italy, and the British islands, is entirely *supra-terrene*, arising from air superincumbent on southern and northern Africa. These directions from the south to the N.N. West, may easily

easily be traced on a map, observing to allow from one to three points to the western direction.

'The 3d phænomenon is due to the re-inforcement of the same cause. In the months of December, January, and February, the superior current is then more copious, as the intra-tropical air is then more heated, and hence adds more to the weight of the northern air, and consequently mercury in barometers must stand highest; but as this current soon diffuses itself over regions on which air at an equal height is still more rarefied, the mercury must sink in proportion to the quantity of air that deserts its station. The small variations of mercury in the intra-tropical regions proceed from the small alteration of the quantity of air incumbent over those tracts. The perturbations that take place within the tropics originate in far higher strata of the atmosphere, than those do that take place in the more distant extra-tropical tracts. Thus, Gentil has shewn, that thunder proceeded from clouds 10000 feet above the surface of the earth at Pondicherry, latitude 12°. 2 Gentil, p. 79. But in latitude 46°, Sir George Shuckburgh heard thunder grumbling under him when standing on mount Saleve, an elevation of only 2831 feet over the surface of the plains. Phil. Trans. 1777, p. 527. Now as a great part of the weight of the atmosphere resides in the inferior and denser strata, it is evident that it must be more altered by the perturbations that happen in them, than by those that happen in the much loftier. Hurricanes alone affect the lower strata, and hence the barometer sinks considerably. Thus, in the hurricane that happened in the island of St. Bartholemew on the 2d of August, 1792, the barometer fell from 30,18 to 28,03 during its continuance, and perhaps still lower, for the observer was obliged to quit the house, whose prostration he apprehended, when at its height. See the circumstantial description in XI. Voights's Phy. Magaz. 4 Stuck. p. 74.

so far
R. W.

On the Naturalization of Plants. *By* John Templeton, A.L.S. —Several judicious observations occur in this paper, which will be of use to those who are disposed to make experiments on the Naturalization of Plants. Among the hints here suggested, Mr. T. says:

'When we endeavour to naturalize plants, that we may distinguish those which offer the fairest prospect of success, a comparison of the exotics with the natives of the soil will be our surest guide. Thus we find, that throughout the frosty regions of the north, the trees, shrubs, bulbous and perennials, complete their shoots, and, before the cold of the winter commences, enclose, in hybernacule or scaly buds, the embryo for the coming year. And there is every reason to believe that all exotics which cease growing, and form these buds or hybernacules in the open air during the course of our summer, will not suffer from the severity of our winter. In the hot-house, many plants complete their shoots that would not probably do so in the open air, the heat not being sufficient to cause them to grow with the vigour necessary for their completion before winter. Nevertheless many of these, if not all, might be brought, by enuring them to the open air, to bear our climate. The Camelia Japonica Thea viridis

and

and Calycanthus præcox, which were formerly kept in the hot-house, then in the green-house, are now sufficiently naturalized to grow in the open air, and are as little injured with the cold of our winters as either the common or Portugal laurels.'

Some objections to this remark may be made, which are stated. Mr. T. very properly resists the opinion that the air of the sea obstructs the growth of the plantations on its shores, and maintains that it is the wind alone which is prejudicial. Expeperience proves that, by affording shelter to plants, they may be enabled to grow on the edge of the sea.

The paper concludes with the general maxim that, 'by a careful inspection of the operations of nature, the hand of man is enabled to collect the productions of distant countries around his home, to cover the arid heath with waving green, and to make the lonely wilderness assume a pleasing gloom.'

Polite Literature.

On the Choice of Subjects for Tragedy. By William Preston, Esq. M.R.I.A.—Mr. Preston controverts the doctrine that "dramatic writers should beware of composing tragedies on political subjects, or borrowing their stories from recent events." He observes that this rule is contrary to the practice of the Greek and Roman tragic writers, and of our own Shakspeare: but he allows that

'There is, indeed, one objection to the choice of subjects too near the present time, which has considerable weight; namely, that, in general, fiction must be employed for the purpose of fitting subjects taken from real life for dramatic representation, and the mind naturally revolts against the use of fiction where the transactions are so recent that the public mind is in possession of all their circumstances; but if the events should happen in themselves to be so grand, so affecting, so full of truly interesting incidents, as to furnish a tragic fable sufficiently detailed and diversified, without the necessity of resorting to invented circumstances of embellishment or interest, the observation, *incredulus odi*, no longer applies, and our knowledge of the reality of the transaction, and the newness and freshness of the concomitant emotions, which it has already excited, will increase the interest and pathos.'

Supposing a drama to be constructed on that recent actual tragedy, *the death of the King and Queen of France*, without resorting to invented circumstances, could its scenes be tolerated on the stage? Would not the mind revolt against so horrid a representation, even though all fiction should be excluded? Party politics, moreover, would almost of necessity be interwoven in the dialogue; and singular address would be essential to free such a piece from great objections.

Reflections on the Peculiarities of Style and Manner in the late German Writers whose works have appeared in English, and on the Tendency of their Productions. By the Same.—The admiration, which has of late been bestowed on translations from the works of the German writers, is regarded by Mr. P. as an evidence of the decline of true taste and sound morality. 'I must own, (says he,) it has moved my bile *to mark the growth and prevalence of the strange and preposterous* partiality for the Gothic productions of the German school: the distempered rage for the gloomy, the horrible, the disconnected, the disproportionate, and the improbable!' Mr. P., however, is not so angry as to prevent the application of ridicule for the cure of folly. He laughs at what he denominates the *straw tragedy* of the Germans, 'which climbs into garrets or dives into cellars for heroes and heroines, and which is founded on the loves of beggars and bunters, of thieves and cut-purses.' To those who are fond of delightfully bloody descriptions, and of the monstro-terrific, he recommends the ballad called *The Lady Isabella's Tragedy*, of which he gives a specimen as worthy of the German muse:

'Then straight his cruel bloody hands,
He on the lady laid;
Who quivering and quaking stands,
While thus to her he said;
"Thou art the doe that I must dress,
"See here—behold my knife;
"For it is pointed, presently
"To rid thee of thy life."
O then cried out the scullion boy,
As loud as loud might be,
"O save her life, good master cook,
"And make your pies of me!"

'What follows may be compared with any thing in *Burger*.

"O then," bespoke the scullion boy,
With a loud voice, so high,
"If now you will your daughter see—
"My lord,—cut up that pye,
"Wherein her flesh is minced small
"And parched with the fire,
"All caused by her stepmother,
"Who did her death desire."—
Then all in black the lord did mourn,
And for his daughter's sake,
He judged her cruel stepmother
To be burned at a stake.
Likewise he judged the master cook
In boiling lead to stand,
And made the simple scullion boy
The heir of all his land.

'It

'It is on such classical models as these, that one of the most favourite and admired *German* writers has formed his style.'

A serious examination of the pernicious tendency of the writings of the German dramatists follows, which is highly creditable to the author's sound judgment and moral feelings.

Mr. P. concludes with a kind of warning or prophetic representation placing the subject in an alarming point of view:

'After all, it may not be chimerical to suppose, that the general reception of the *German* writings, the universal prevalence of the German taste, and the love of the wild and gloomy, are not to be accounted for, from ordinary causes; and have in them more weight and importance, than are usually attached to mere matters of taste and criticism. May not these be among the elements, of feverish agitation, and mighty change, afloat, by the permission of Providence, for purposes, to us inscrutable, in the moral system? May not this revolution in taste be a prelude to other revolutions; a small skirt of the cloud, *like a man's hand*, ushering in the blackening tempest? Are not the German writings calculated, to generate, in both sexes, a ferocious hardihood, and independence of mind; a dangerous contempt of established forms; a promptitude, to suffer and to dare; an enthusiasm of character, fitting them for seasons of energy, of exertions, of privations, dangers, and calamities? It is natural, for human blindness and inattention, to overlook the instruments, and operations, by which Providence prepares and fashions great and surprising events. It is the folly of man, to ascribe too little weight and importance to moral causes; while, it is the course of Providence (as it were, on purpose, to humble human pride,) to act, by seemingly minute and inefficient causes. Who knows, then, but this preternatural appetite for the irregular, the indecorous, the boisterous, the sanguinary, and the terrific, may be the precursor of some strange, moral, or political convulsion?"

Being a very *gloomy*, we wish that Mr. Preston may prove a *false* prophet.

Antiquities.

Some Account of the Vicar's Cairn, in the County of Armagh; communicated to the Committee of Antiquities in two Letters; one from Dr. Browne, *Senior Fellow of Trinity College, Dublin; the other from the Rev.* John Young, *Curate of Mullabruck.*—This Cairn is inclosed by a circle of large stones, on the tallest of which some lines of unequal lengths appear to have been engraved, which are said to be an Ogham inscription: but of this conjecture no proof is given. The stone with the indented lines, called the written stone, is represented in a copper-plate; and a view of the Cairn with upright stones, set in the ground, which surround it, is given in another. For this Cairn, the common people have a superstitious reverence.

An Account of some antient Trumpets, dug up in a Bog near Armagh. *By* Arthur Browne Esq. Senior Fellow of Trinity College, Dublin.—Four trumpets had been dug up by a Mr. Pooler, one of the Primate's tenants; and their antiquity, it is stated, appears from the peculiarity of the metallic composition, which is different from any of modern times, and from the parts being joined entirely by rivets. The form of these instruments resembles that of the cornu rather than the tuba. One of them, after having been made wind-tight, produced a tremendous sound, which might be heard at the distance of several miles. A plate is given, representing one of the trumpets, which measures four feet in diameter; and which is conjectured to be the Dudag or Skeh trumpet of brass, mentioned by General Vallancey.

With this paper the volume closes; and our readers will form their estimate of its merit from the account which we have now presented to them.

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ART. X. *Excursions from Bath.* By the Rev. Richard Warner. 8vo. pp. 346. 8s. Boards. Robinsons.

ART. XI. *A Tour through the Northern Counties of England, and the Borders of Scotland.* By the Rev. Richard Warner. 2 Vols. 8vo. 18s. Boards. Robinsons.

THOUGH these works made their appearance at different times, yet, being of the same nature, we present them together to the notice of the reader. Our guide in these wanderings is not a stranger to us, for we have already had frequent occasion to pronounce on his labours *; and they afforded much promise, which has been substantiated in the volumes now lying before us. The circuit of his excursions takes us through parts of the country which are thickly strewed with objects of curiosity, natural and artificial; rich in beautiful scenery; and abounding with magnificent edifices, which disclose vast treasures to the man of science and of taste. The survey made of them, and the account of it here given, are highly creditable to Mr. Warner's judgment, discrimination, and powers of description; and much praise is due to him for the great pains which he seems to have taken, to qualify himself for the difficult task on which he entered. In order to execute it properly, it was necessary that the author should be acquainted with the outlines and principles of many branches

* For Mr. W.'s former tours, see Rev. N. S. vols. xxvi p 9. xxxi. p. 183. and xxxiv. p. 156; and for his History of Bath, see our last volume, p. 225.

of

of knowlege, with those of natural history, mineralogy, chemistry, the various styles of architecture, landscape-gardening, sculpture, and painting; as well as with those of our ecclesiastical, civil, and military antiquities. We thank Mr. W. for the brevity which characterizes his descriptions of rural scenes, for not descending into too great minuteness, for being contented to sketch only general outlines, and to exhibit leading features. We should, indeed, hold up his conduct to the imitation of others, were we not apprehensive that it may be deemed a still farther improvement, to introduce descriptions of this nature yet more rarely. Had he done so, and had he been more particular in establishing the relative positions of his scenes of rural beauty, we should have considered his volumes as not the less valuable.—His style, though generally correct, wants somewhat of that ease and simplicity which so peculiarly suit this species of composition.

Mr. Warner observes, in his *Excursions from Bath* *, that, in the high season, there is a resort to this city not generally known, that of beggars; of whose habits and proceedings he gives an interesting account. Holloway, a village near to the city, is their head-quarters; as well as those of some poor quadrupeds whose sufferings thus call forth the amiable sentiments of the author:

'Together with shelter for the beggar, it affords a nocturnal retreat for a much more useful class of beings, the animals employed in the conveyance of coals from the pits to Bath. Wearied and panting with the labour of the day, here the wretched beasts are driven by crouds, as the evening closes, into yards hired for the purpose, not so much for the sake of rewarding their services with rest, as to prevent their escape from the toil of the morrow. As they pick a scanty pittance from the ditches and hedges during the day, the inhuman master thinks himself exempted from the necessity of giving them food at night; and what is still more barbarous, never removes from their backs the heavy and incumbering wooden saddle on which the coals are packed, but suffers it to continue girded on for weeks together, inflaming and increasing those galls which its pressure originally occasioned. The meek and unresisting are the objects on which cruelty and cowardice most delight to exercise their tyranny, for reasons sufficiently obvious; and the unfortunate *ass* is chiefly employed in the business of transporting the coals from the pits to the city. Full oft has my heart bled for this little, wasted, panting wretch, staggering under its unconscionable burthen, and labouring up the steep streets of Bath; now dropping

* Mr. W.'s routes were from BATH to *Hindon*, *Frome*, *Stourhead*, *Salisbury*, *Warminster*, *Trowbridge*, &c.——BATH to *Chippenham*, *Malmsbury*, *Badminton*, &c.——BATH to *Bristol*, *Frocester*, *Stroud*, *Cirencester*, *Wooton-under-Edge*, &c.

with fatigue, and again urged to exertion by reiterated blows. Inhumanity in every shape is odious to the feeling bosom, but it never assumes so much deformity as when exercised against the helpless and the patient; nor is honest indignation ever more praise-worthy, than when it is levelled at the tyrant in the little way.'

On the subject of canals, Mr. W. introduces an observation which the lovers of fine scenery may find it worth while to notice: 'General as these means of communication between distant parts are now become throughout England, it has often struck me, that a great part of the natural beauties of our country might be seen to advantage by pursuing their banks; as the canals must necessarily follow the involutions of the vallies, the traveller would of course be led through all their romantic scenery, and be gratified with pictures, which a bird's-eye view from a hill must rob of half their effect, and which a turnpike-road will seldom afford him.'

Every reader will approve the author's neat and forcible vindication of a favourite pursuit:

'Lightly as the antiquarian taste is esteemed, and much as it is ridiculed, it notwithstanding opens no mean sources of gratification to the man who cultivates it rationally, and leads to consequences interesting to society, and beneficial to the individual. Did the enjoyment of the antiquary consist in the unmeaning contemplation of unintelligible fragments, and time-eaten stones, it would be fair to consider *him* as senseless as the objects to which he directs it: but when the remains of ancient days awaken curiosity, and excite research; when they induce inquiries into the manners and customs, opinions and practices, of former times; when they lead to a comparison between the state of the arts amongst our fore-fathers, and with us their descendants; when they are brought to the illustration of historical difficulties, or distant events; above all, when they entice the mind to sober reflection, and to a fair estimate of our present state, the evanescence of all human labours, and the vanity of all human schemes, the pursuit then assumes a more dignified aspect; it asserts the praise of contributing not only to the entertainment, but to the information, of the community; it strengthens the religious principle, and makes the man better and wiser than he would be without it.'

Frome, a town of no great name, furnishes Mr. W. with an account which is honourable to British industry:

'Here an agreeable appearance of bustle and business catches the eye, every thing indicates the presence of manufactories and trade; and the labouring men, women, and children, as deeply tinged as ancient Britons with a dark blue, discover the nature of the employment by which they get their bread—the dying and scribbling of the wool, and the weaving and shearing of the cloth of that colour. Frome has for many years been famous for working Spanish and English

English wool into broad-cloths and kerseymeres; in the year 1789, three hundred and forty-eight thousand pounds weight of wool were wrought here into one hundred and sixty thousand yards of broad-cloth and kerseymere, of which quantity the former article composed about four fifths; a business that employed two hundred and thirty-three scribblers, and two hundred and twenty-three shearmen. The quantity of wool manufactured here is since considerably increased, but the number of people employed is diminished, the introduction of machines having lessened, in a prodigious proportion, the call for manual labour. At present there are in the town of Frome twenty-seven manufacturers of cloth, who make, of broad, narrow, and kerseymere, about two hundred pieces weekly, of twenty-eight yards each; or, calculating by a different measure, about one hundred and sixty miles of cloth, in length, every year.

'The following slight sketch will shew you the process pursued in this branch of British manufactories, and, at the same time, give you an idea of the number of people, to whom we are obliged for every coat we wear:—The English fleece is sorted, according to its different qualities, by the woolstapler, and the Spanish has all its pitch marks clipped off. It is then carried to the dye-house, and when cleansed from its impurities, (by scouring it in a furnace of hot water) dyed, and returned to the manufacturer; afterwards scribbled; carded, and spun into yarn by machinery; twisted; woven in the loom; burled, by nipping off its knots and burs; milled by the fuller; dubbed with cards of teazle; stretched on the tenter hooks; dressed; sheared; pressed between heated planks and press paper; and packed for the markets.'

Speaking of Maiden Bradley, the seat of the Duke of Somerset, the author says;

'I need not tell you, that I entered this pile with particular veneration, when you know that it holds the sacred dust of a patriot, to whose exertions my countrymen owe, in a great degree, that palladium of British freedom, the Habeas Corpus Act; which precludes the rigours of arbitrary imprisonment, by obliging the judge, under severe penalties, to grant a writ at the request of every prisoner, directing the jailor to produce him in court, and to certify the causes for which he was committed. This character was Sir Edward Seymour, a senator who made a conspicuous figure in the reigns of Charles II. William, and Anne. It is true, indeed, that in other respects he inclined to Toryism; but the rigid integrity of his political conduct entitles him to our respect, though we cannot admire his creed; and he at least claims a merit that *every statesman* cannot boast, of having preserved an unvarying consistency during his whole career, in those sentiments which he avowed on his entrance into public life, and of never having sacrificed his principles for the sake of retaining his place, or extending his influence. The monument of Sir Edward Seymour is of marble, and contains the figure of the senator in a reclining attitude, and resting upon his arm. Above him are two Cupids, the one holding an inverted torch, as an emblem of extinguished life; the other, the figure of a serpent, as

the emblem of immortality. A long inscription commemorates his virtues, and the obligations which he conferred on posterity. He was born in 663, and died in 1707.'

Mr. Warner here traces an outline of his political sentiments, which we cannot but approve; while we equally applaud the candour and moderation with which they are accompanied.

After having enumerated the valuable paintings * at Berkeley castle, the author passes to the church, and mentions a memorial of *Dickey Pearce*, who, half a century ago, held an office then not uncommon in great families, that of the lord's buffoon or fool; and respecting whom this anecdote is told:

'Dickey sometimes availed himself of the practice of the seers of old, of imparting instruction by the means of sensible types instead of verbal communication. An ancestor of the present Lord B. having considerably diminished his property by expensive pursuits, Dickey began to fear that the whole of the noble patrimony would be dissipated, and the venerable castle, with its princely demesnes, be transferred from the family to strange purchasers. High as his privilege of speech was with my Lord, he could not, however, venture to *expostulate* with him on so delicate a subject; he therefore determined to *hint* to him the fatal consequences of his imprudences by a *visible sign*. Procuring a rope, therefore, he placed himself at the great gate of the castle at a time when he knew his Lordship would pass through it, and as he approached, began to apply the cord to the wall, as if he intended to surround the whole with it. "What art thou doing, Dick?" said my Lord. 'Only tying a rope round the castle, your honour, to prevent its running away after —— and ——, (estates which his Lordship had sold) to the top of Stinchcomb-hill.' His Lordship felt the force of the observation, and rewarded the droll with a piece of money for his foresight and wit.'

We must now turn from Mr. W.'s account of the beauties of Wiltshire, to the two volumes which lead us through the northern part of the island †; and here we have the same occasion to acknowlege the author's merits in describing natural scenery, and his judgment in the selection of objects. No spot which witnessed any great deed, or which bears relation to any illustrious character, is allowed to escape his notice; and a spirit of liberty, truly British, of the old stamp, such as cha-

* Objections may perhaps be made to the length of some of the author's catalogues of paintings and statues in the different seats here described: but they are often accompanied by interesting historical particulars and sensible reflections.

† On this occasion, Mr. W.'s extensive line of march included parts of Glostershire, Worcestershire, Warwickshire, Derbyshire, Yorkshire, Durham, Northumberland, the Borders, the Lakes, Lancashire, Staffordshire, and Warwickshire and Glostershire again.

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racterized our best days, often agreeably bursts forth, to rouse the well disposed, and to reproach the sons of degeneracy.

The public institutions at Bristol are duly recorded and praised by Mr. Warner; and we have this account of one which will convey pleasure to the heart of sensibility:

'I should not forget, whilst thus enumerating the good points of Bristol, to mention its many humane establishments for the comfort, solace, and relief of poverty and sickness. The celebrated Colston, a second Man of Ross, has immortalized the character of the Bristol merchant by some of the most noble institutions that a private individual ever had either ability or liberality to establish. His school, in particular, which gives education, board, cloathing, and subsequent settlement in life, to the children which it receives under its protection, does honour to his understanding as well as his heart; and at once attaches to his character the two most glorious titles of —wise and good.

'Another most interesting charity, only to be found, I believe, in this place and Liverpool, adds to the respect we feel for the Bristol character. It is a School of Industry for the Indigent Blind, formed in 1793, and supported by the voluntary contributions of the public. Here those unfortunate beings, who, (the blessing of sight being denied to them,) may apply to themselves the pathetic lament of Milton:

"For with the year
Seasons return; but not to us return
Day, nor the sweet approach of ev'n or morn,
Or sight of vernal bloom, or summer's rose,
Or flocks, or herds, or human face divine;
But clouds instead, and ever-during dark,
Surround us; from the cheerful ways of men
Cut off, and, for the Book of Knowledge fair,
Presented with an universal blank!"——

Here they are taught to earn their livelihood by the labour of their hands; and by these means relieved from that most distressing of all convictions, the conviction of being a burthen on society. Their employments are of several sorts; that of the males is chiefly basket-making; of the females, spinning, and making laces for women's stays. No sight can be more interesting or affecting than this little seminary, its scholars busied in their respective avocations. All is cheerfulness, animation, and industry; escaped from that melancholy mental vacuity, that necessary inaction which the privation of sight induces, these unfortunate objects feel a felicity in employment not to be conceived by those who are in possession of vision. The eagerness with which they receive instruction, and the inflexible patience and perseverance they display in endeavouring to profit by it, strongly mark those natural principles engrafted in man, to the love of action, and the desire of independence. The institution only extends to the instruction of the blind in the manner of living by their own exertions, but the expences even of this limited plan, and of articles necessary

necessary for their work, amount to 500l. per annum. You will be pleased, however, to see by the following statement of the annual profits of their labour since the first formation of the establishment, that they have been gradually increasing in the yearly amount, and promise soon to be sufficient of themselves for the support of the school, without the aid of voluntary contributions:—

'*Receipt from Sales of Articles manufactured in the School.*

	£.	s.	d.		£.	s.	d.
First Year -	18	3	6½	Fourth Year -	154	15	6
Second Year -	82	17	11	Fifth Year -	188	12	7
Third Year -	125	7	10½	Sixth Year -	262	9	6¼

Last Year 391*l.* 10*s.*'

The virtues of a late illustrious public character will impart interest to the subsequent passages:

'Quitting Rotherham, we mounted the hill on the north of the town, and throwing our eye back on the tract we had lately passed through, beheld a picture of such richness and variety as, perhaps, no other part of England can afford. Before us, also an extremely grand country disclosed itself, undulating into broad hills and wide vallies, whose boundless fertility is assisted by an admirable system of agriculture. The prospect terminated with the majestic woods of Wentworth-park, within whose embrace stands the gorgeous manfion of Earl Fitzwilliam, about four miles from Rotherham, and half a mile from the turnpike-road. Its front stretches upwards of six hundred feet in a straight line, and consists of a centre and two wings. The portico (which measures sixty feet in length by twenty in the projection) is ascended by a double flight of steps, and supported by eight pillars of the Corinthian order. The arms of the family ornament the tympanum, and the following motto, so appropriate to the inflexible integrity and uncorruptible political virtue of the late Marquis of Rockingham, runs along the entablature, *Mea Gloria Fides.*'—

'Every thing *without* the mansion is consistent with the magnificence and expence which reign *within* it. The menagerie and stables, in its immediate neighbourhood, are executed upon a princely scale; and the more distant decorations of the extenfive park (which embraces one thousand six hundred acres within its inclosure) evince the grand conceptions of the noble Marquis under whose directions the whole was principally executed. To enumerate and analyse the august and diversified views which are caught from particular parts of the wide domain, would exhaust my powers of description, and fatigue your attention. I should only, indeed, be ringing tiresome changes upon waving woods, fine expanses of water, grand slopes, swelling hills, temples, towers, pyramids, and obelisks; without conveying to your mind one adequate idea of the happy combinations of those different objects, which afford such pleasure to the eye, whilst contemplating them in nature. Let it be sufficient for me, then, to lead you to the chief artificial decoration of Wentworth park, the *Mausoleum*, (of fine free-stone,) built by the present Earl Fitzwilliam, in honour of his glorious predecessor, the late Marquis of Rockingham. It stands on an elevated spot of ground, to the right of the grand

grand entrance into the park from the Rotherham road; is ninety feet high, and consists of three divisions. A Doric basement story, square; another above this of the same figure, but of Ionic architecture; each of its four sides opening into the form of an arch, and disclosing an elegant sarcophagus standing in the centre. This is surmounted by a cupola, supported by twelve columns of the same order, taking a circular arrangement. At each corner of the railing that incloses this superb edifice is an obelisk of great height. But the most interesting part of it is the interior of the lower story; an apartment rising into a dome, ornamentally stuccoed, and supported by eight pillars, encircling a white marble statue of the late Marquis of Rockingham in his robes, as large as life, by the admirable chissel of Nollekens. This stands on a square pedestal, one side of which is inscribed with the titles of this great man. The remaining three form a noble, but just, tribute to his memory, being dedicated to deserved eulogium, and the effusions of disinterested friendship. The verses and laudatory lines are as follow:—

" Angels, whose guardian care is England, spread
" Your shadowing wings o'er patriot Wentworth dead:
" With sacred awe his hallow'd ashes keep,
" Where commerce, science, honour, friendship, weep
" The pious hero—the deeply-sorrowing wife
" All the soft ties which bless'd his virtuous life.
" Gentle, intrepid, generous, mild, and just;
" These heartfelt titles grace his honour'd dust.
" No fields of blood, by laurels ill repaid,
" No plunder'd provinces, disturb his shade;
" But white-rob'd Peace compos'd his closing eyes,
" And join'd with soft Humanity her sighs:
" They mourn their patron gone, their friend no more,
" And England's tears his short-liv'd power deplore."

" A man worthy to be held in remembrance, because he did not live for himself. His abilities, industry, and influence were employed, without interruption, to the last hour of his life, to give stability to the liberties of his country; security to its landed property; increase to its commerce; independence to its public counsels; and concord to its empire. These were his ends. For the attainment of these ends, his policy consisted in sincerity, fidelity, directness, and constancy. In opposition, he respected the principles of government. In administration, he provided for the liberties of the people. He employed his moments of power in realizing every thing which he had professed in a popular situation; the distinguishing mark of his public conduct. Reserved in profession, sure in performance, he laid the foundation of a solid confidence.

" He far exceeded all other statesmen in the art of drawing together, without the seduction of self-interest, the concurrence and cooperation of various dispositions and abilities of men, whom he assimilated to his character, and associated in his labours. For it was his aim through life to convert party connection, and personal friendship, (which others had rendered subservient only to temporary views

views and the purposes of ambition) into a lasting depository of his principles; that their energy should not depend upon his life, nor fluctuate with the intrigues of a court, or with capricious fashions amongst the people. But that by securing a succession in support of his maxims, the British constitution might be preserved according to its true genius, on ancient foundations, and institutions of tried utility.

"The virtues of his private life, and those which he exhibited in the service of the state, were not in him separate principles. His private virtues, without any change in their character, expanded with the occasion into enlarged public affections. The very same tender, benevolent, feeling, liberal mind, which in the internal relations of life conciliated the genuine love of those who see men as they are, rendered him an inflexible patriot. He was devoted to the cause of freedom, not because he was haughty and intractable, but because he was beneficent and humane.

"A sober, unaffected, unassuming piety, the basis of all true morality, gave *truth* and permanence to his virtues.

"He died at a fortunate time, before he could feel, by a decisive proof, that virtue like his, must be nourished from its own substance only, and cannot be assured of any external support.

"Let his successors, who daily behold this monument, consider that it was not built to entertain the eye, but to instruct the mind! Let them reflect, that their conduct will make it their glory or their reproach. Let them feel that similarity of manners, not proximity of blood, gives them an interest in this statue.

"Remember; resemble; persevere."

'In four recesses in the wall of this apartment within the pillars, are eight white marble busts, placed in the following order:—To the right of the entrance, in the first niche, are Edmund Burke and the Duke of Portland; in the second, Frederic Montague and Sir George Saville; in the third, Charles Fox and Admiral Keppel; in the fourth, Lord J. Cavendish and John Lee. From this sumptuous edifice a good idea may be formed of Wentworth demesne. A boundless prospect of the richest part of England lies open to the eye, infinitely diversified; the grandest feature of which is the park. The woods, the water, the tower, the pyramid, and the house, all fall into the picture; and present a scene in which it is difficult to say whether the beauty of nature, the efforts of art, or the operations of taste, are to be most admired. Viewing Wentworth home grounds and mansion from hence, we had no hesitation in pronouncing it to be the finest place we had ever seen.'

We should not have imagined that a mind like that of the present writer would have given way to the vulgar prejudices on the subjects of the trade in corn, and of agricultural economy; and we much wish him to reconsider his opinions on these points.

From the second volume, we shall treat the reader with the account of an usage as extraordinary, as any that is to be found in the puerile annals of feudal times:

'Alnwick itself has little beauty, being straggling and irregular. A few vestiges of its former walls are visible, and the late Duke of Northumberland's munificence is manifested in some modern public edifices in the Gothic style. The customs of this borough were formerly many and curious; one only remains now, but sufficiently singular in its nature to be mentioned. The candidate for the few existing rights attaching to a freeman in this dis-used borough has to pass through a purgatory little less alarming than the initiatory rites to the greater mysteries of *Eleusis*; clad in a white garment, he is led to a little stream which runs across a road on the town moor, anciently called the Forest of Aidon, whose waters are deepened for the purpose by a dam thrown across them, and bottom rendered as unequal and rugged as possible, by holes being dug and stones cast therein. All these accommodating arrangements are made by a man who lives near the stream, and exacts five shillings from each of the freemen for his trouble. Through this water, without the aid of stick or staff, the candidate is to find his way; and provided he effect this without breaking his legs, he is then condemned to an *equestrian* adventure equally perilous; to ride round the manor, after changing his clothes, accompanied by two of the oldest inhabitants of the borough as his guides, a distance of ten miles, over a road rugged with precipices, deformed with bog, and obstructed with briar. If he do all this, *and live*, he becomes a freeman of Alnwick.'

The philosopher will peruse our next quotation with interest, and it is also not unworthy of notice from the statesman. Mr. Warner has been making a slight incursion on the land of Caledonia, and is now returning to the borders:

'Two turnpike gates, at the distsnce of twenty yards from each other, now applied for their respective tolls; and, on enquiring the reason of these demands so immediately succeeding each other, we found that they were separate concerns; one standing in Scotland, the other in England—the intervening space, called Scotch dike, dividing the two kingdoms from each other. We could not quit this boundary of Caledonia, little as we had seen of the country, without casting "one longing ling'ring look behind;" not so much on account of the beautiful scenery with which we had of late been so agreeably amused, as on that of the character of its inhabitants, whose manners, as far as our opportunity of observing them extended, had interested us extremely. Tainted, perhaps, (though I am almost unwilling to suppose it) with some of those prejudices which the illiberality of my own countrymen have so generally excited against the Scottish character; (and which, I am inclined to think, arise rather from our envy at their mental superiority, than from any conviction of their comparative moral or intellectual defects;) I was greatly but agreeably surprized to find nothing but what was amiable and exemplary in every class of Scotch society. Hospitality, kindness, and most minute attention to the comfort and ease of their guests, mark the character of the Scotch gentleman; whilst the peasantry are equally remarkable for the same good qualities in a ruder way, and the more valuable ones of correct morality, sincere piety, and an exemplary decency in lan-

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guage and manners. Struggling with a poverty which almost amounts to a privation of food, and condemned to a labour before which the southern Britons would sink down in listless despondence, the Scotch peasant displays a degree of patience and industry, accompanied at the same time with content, that place him on the scale of moral excellence far above those who ridicule or despise him. Serious, without moroseness; quick, without asperity; and sagacious, without conceit; friendly, kind, and just; this may be considered as the moral portrait of such part of the Scotch as are not sophisticated or spoiled by a communication with their southern neighbours. Of this description I think I may pronounce the inhabitants of the borders to be, who perhaps are more national in their manners, practices, and ideas, than the northern counties of the kingdom; from the circumstance of *effects* being still felt in these parts, which have long faded away in the more distant divisions of the country. The natural consequence of those perpetual feuds which subsisted between the borderers of both kingdoms was a reciprocal rooted hatred, piously handed down from father to son, and carefully transmitted through successive generations by legendary tales and popular ballads, whose constant theme and burthen were the injuries which each party had received from the other, and the vengeance which these injuries deserved. Amongst the other Scots, the national disgust to the English, though excited before their conquest by frequent wars, had ceased (at least in a great degree) as soon as those wars had terminated. But with the borderers the case had been different; their relative situation with the English prevented the wound from being closed; the cause was always operating; new occasions of rancour were ever occurring in the violences of each party; and their mutual dislike, instead of being softened by time, was, on the contrary, every day increased and confirmed. Hence it happens, that a great degree of coolness and dislike still subsists between the inhabitants of the respective neighbouring countries; which not only operate as a bar to free communication between them, but at the same time render the Scotch infinitely more tenacious of those manners, customs, and opinions, which distinguish them from their ancient enemies.

'We were concerned to find that these little local prejudices subsisted as well amongst the higher classes of society, as the peasantry of both the borders; scarcely any intercourse subsisting between the Scotch and English gentlemen of those parts. Frequent attempts have been made by men of liberal minds to overcome this unsocial spirit, but without effect. About fifty years ago a club was established for the express purpose of bringing these neighbours, separated only by a river, to more friendly communication; and intended to be held one week in Scotland and the next in England. The parties accordingly met, dined in peace, and spent part of the day in cheerfulness and friendship; when unfortunately a descendant of an English bordering family, renowned in the history of the petty wars of those parts, reminded a Scotch gentleman sitting near him of some successful innovations made by his own ancestors on the castle of this other gentleman's great grandsire. In a moment the moulder-

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ing ashes were re-kindled, the *deadly feud* was revived, and the spirit of insulted nationality spread itself from the Scotchman to all his countrymen. The feast of the *Lapithæ* once more displayed itself; all was riot and confusion; and few of the party returned home without having received some proofs imprinted on their heads or faces, that the hatred of the borderers for each other had not been extinguished, but had only lain dormant for a time. I believe no trial since this has been made for bringing such dissocial spirits together.'

Speaking of the mountainous parts of Westmoreland and Cumberland, the author observes;

'Here, in the midst of these secluded scenes, formed by the involutions of the mountains, uncorrupted by the society of the world, lives one of the most independent, most moral, and most respectable characters existing—the *estatesman*, as he is called in the language of the country. His property usually amounts from 80l. to 200l. a year, of which his mansion forms the central point; where he passes an undisturbed inoffensive life, surrounded by his own paternal meads and native hills. Occupied in cultivating the former, and browzing the latter with his large flocks of three or four thousand sheep, he has no temptation to emigrate from home; and knowing but few of those artificial wants which spring from luxury, he has no opportunity of lessening or alienating his property in idle expenditure; and transmits to his descendant, without diminution or increase, the demesne which had been left to himself by his own frugal and contented forefathers. Hence it happens, that more frequent instances occur in the deep vales of Cumberland, of property being enjoyed for a long series of generations by the same family, than in any other part of England. The pride of descent would be put to the blush, were it to be told that in a hallowed recess of this kind in the neighbourhood of Keswick-Lake, a man is now living, who enjoys exactly the same property which his lineal ancestor possessed in the reign of Edward the Confessor. Their sheep, running wild upon the mountains, and never taken into the farm-yard, are exposed to perpetual accidents and loss, arising from the inclemency of the weather, and the horrors of snow-storms, which, in some instances, have amounted to twelve or fifteen hundred head in a year. This circumstance prevents them from getting *rich;* but on the other hand, as the flocks are kept without the least expence to the proprietor, their losses never induce poverty upon them; so that, happily oscillating between their loss and gain, they are preserved in the only blessed, the only independent state—that golden mean which the wise Agur so earnestly and rationally petitioned of his God that he might enjoy: "Two things have I required of thee; deny me them not before I die. Remove me far from vanity and lies; give me neither poverty nor riches; feed me with food convenient for me; lest I be full, and deny thee, and say Who is the Lord? or lest I be poor and steal, and take the name of my God in vain." Removed by their situation and circumstances from the ever-shifting scene of fashionable life, their manners continue primitive, unabraded by the collision of general intercourse; their hospitality is unbounded

and sincere; their sentiments simple; and their language scriptural. "Go," said an estatesman to a friend of mine, whom he had entertained for some days in his house, "Go to the vale on the other side of yon mountain, to the house of such an estatesman, and tell him you came from me. I know him not; but he will receive you kindly, for *our sheep mingle upon the mountains.*"

Bella island, in the lake of Windermere, is a rare instance of the advance of price, even in these times. We are told that 'the island was purchased about seventeen years ago by Mrs. Curwen, before her marriage, for the sum of 1640l. of the creditors of Mr. English, who had begun the house which Mr. Curwen now inhabits; the plantations commenced two years afterwards; but so much has the value of property hereabouts increased, and so elegantly has Mr. Curwen completed the mansion and grounds, that within this present year 20,000l. have been offered as the price of his purchase.'

If our limits would permit, we could add numerous other passages from these volumes, equally interesting and curious; for many have presented themselves, which we have passed over with reluctance. From a work of such a nature, indeed, it is much easier to make copious extracts than to restrain the pen: but we must at last exert this necessary resolution, and recommend a perusal of the whole to those who desire farther gratification.

Two pleasing drawings are given as frontispieces to the Northern Tour, and both publications are furnished with small local maps displaying the author's course: but an index is wanting.

Jo.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JUNE, 1803.

NATURAL HISTORY.

Art. 12. *The Woodland Companion:* or a brief Description of British Trees. With some Account of their Uses. Illustrated by Plates. Compiled by the Author of Evenings at Home. 8vo. pp. 92. 8s. half-bound. Johnson. 1802.

THIS little *Sylva* exhibits, in a pleasing and familiar style, short descriptions of the appearances and properties of thirty-seven trees, or shrubs, the ordinary tenants of our woods and pleasure grounds. The account of each is preceded by the English and Linnéan names, with the generic and specific characters. Appropriate practical allusions are occasionally sprinkled among the descriptions; and not fewer than twenty-eight species are illustrated by distinct and handsome engravings.—The following article may serve as a specimen of the text.

'THE

× By Dr. Aikin

'THE HAZEL.

'CORYLUS AVELLANA.—

'*Fructification.* Barren flowers in a long scaly catkin, each flower of eight chives. Fertile flowers on the same tree in buds, distant, each flower with two shafts, the seed bud changing to a nut.

'*Specific character.* Leaves oval, serrated, wrinkled; props or stipulæ oval, blunt.

'Though the hazel does not arrive at the bulk of a timber-tree, it is on several accounts worth notice among the natives of the forest. Its male catkins, of a yellowish green, are among the first appearances in the year of vegetable expansion, generally unfolding in the month of January. Its fruit-bearing buds make a beautiful show in March, when they burst, and disclose the bright crimson of their shafts. The hazel is met with native in almost every part of this island, forming hedges or coppices, and thickening the approaches of woods. If suffered to attain their full growth, they shoot into poles of twenty feet in length; but they are usually cut down sooner, in order to form walking-sticks, fishing-rods, stakes, hurdles, and the like, or for burning into charcoal. Hazel-charcoal is preferred to any other by painters and engravers, for the freedom with which it draws, and the readiness with which its marks can be rubbed out. The nuts of the hazel are a generally agreeable fruit. They abound in a mild oil, which may be extracted by expression, and is used by painters for mixing with their colours. Nuts, however, are difficult of digestion, and, when eaten in large quantities, often prove hurtful. They ripen soon after harvest; and Thomson gives an animated picture of the amusement of gathering them, usually termed *nutting*.

'Ye swains, now hasten to the hazel bank,
Where, down yon dale, the wildly-winding brook
Falls hoarse from steep to steep. In close array,
Fit for the thickets and the tangling shrub,
Ye virgins, come. For you their latest song
The woodlands raise; the clustering nuts for you
The lover finds amid the secret shade;
And, where they burnish on the topmost bough,
With active vigour crushes down the tree,
Or shakes them ripe from the resigning husk. *Autumn.*

'They are a favourite food of squirrels, which lay them up in their winter hoards, and always take care to pick out the best. It is a common observation, that a plentiful year for nuts is the same for wheat.

'The filbert is a variety of the common nut, distinguished by a longer fruit, and a thinner skin. It is cultivated in plantations in the Kentish orchards, and yields a valuable product.'

The compiler might have subjoined that the *oak* thrives on the same soil, and that acorns may be safely sown where the hazel abounds. In other instances, too, a few agreeable or useful notices might have been added, without swelling the performance beyond the size of a pocket companion. Thus, the charcoal of oak and beech is pre-

ferred in the reduction of metallic calces. The *ash*, in warm climates, especially in Sicily and Calabria, yields the sweet exudation called *manna*. Its inner bark and that of the linden tree were used as paper by the antients. It is also worthy of remark that its hardy constitution frequently endures the sea-winds, and enables it to thrive on shores where few other trees will live. The charcoal of the lime is prized by the manufacturers of gunpowder; and St. Pierre has given a lively account of the *travels* and *manœuvres* of its seed. The *hawthorn*, which is spontaneous in most of the countries of Europe, attains, in favourable spots, to an extraordinary age. The beautiful scarlet and double-blossomed sorts appear to be only varieties; and the Glastonbury thorn differs in no respect from the white, except that it sometimes flowers in winter.—The wood of the holly affords the best blocks for the callico printers.—The writer's extensive reading and observation will, we doubt not, enable him to enrich a future edition with various other particulars, related in the same pleasing manner with those now before us. Muir.

Art. 13. *Nereis Britannica;* containing all the Species of Fuci, Natives of the British Coasts; with a Description in English and Latin, and Plates coloured from Nature. Fasciculus III. By John Stackhouse, Esq. F.L.S. Folio. 1l. 8s. sewed. White.

In the 28th volume of our New Series (p. 335.), we announced the first and second fasciculi of this very splendid and interesting work. Its learned and indefatigable author thus apologizes for the interval which has elapsed since the publication of the second part:

'This delay has been occasioned partly by the arduous nature of the undertaking, and partly by the remoteness of my situation. This interval, however, notwithstanding any seeming inattention to the public on my part, has not been misemployed by me. I have been enabled very carefully to revise and correct what I have already published, and, what is a far more important object, I have pursued my investigations on the different species of Fuci, during their respective seasons of fructification in succeeding years.'

The present fasciculus, with its appendix, completes Mr. Stackhouse's descriptions of British Fuci, and, we lament to add, terminates his work, at least for the present. 'I at first meant,' he says in a note, 'to include CONFERVA and ULVA in this work, but the length of time which the investigation of the present *genus* has occupied, deters me from the undertaking. I have no doubt of its being executed by some abler hand. The *Conferva* in particular, a very numerous family, have had very little scientific pains bestowed on them: nothing but drawings of their internal structure under a microscope will be capable of illustrating them satisfactorily. Till such a work appears, I would advise collectors of marine plants to delineate in pencil, or colours, a small bit under a microscope to shew the internal structure, and to lay down the plant on the paper underneath.'

We are here furnished with fourteen pages of additional preface and descriptions of *Fucus Ceranoïdes, Sherardi, Pinastroïdes, Hypoglossoides, Laceratus, Alatus, Fibrosus, Coronopifolius, Barbatus, Abrotanifolius, Amphibius.*

Amphibius, *Fastigiatus*, *Radiatus*, *Ciliatus*, *Crispatus*, *Roseus*, *Dentatus*, *Confervoïdes*, *Diffusus*, *Longissimus*, *Gracilis*, *Palmetta*, *Pallescens*, *Undulatus*, *Opuntia*, *Plumosus*, *Coccineus*, *Lycopodium*, *Discors*, *Costatus*, *Pedunculatus*, and *Viridis*. Most of these are exhibited in exquisitely coloured figures, designed by the author, and engraved by Heath.

In studying the fructification of many of the genera, the magnified drawings will be found of peculiar advantage.

We should add that, for the sake of such purchasers as are not in possession of the Linnéan Transactions, and of the productions of Lightfoot and Velley, or who wish to have this work complete, several species which have been recently delineated are described in the Appendix, with references to a set of drawings which may be furnished separately by the publisher.

Mr. Stackhouse is too well acquainted with the intricate and immature state of his subject, to flatter himself that his elucidations of British Fuci are complete. A slight inspection, indeed, of the most approved treatises on marine *algæ* is sufficient to convince us that their distinctions and physiology still require illustration. The present fasciculus contains not a few doubts and corrections; and the close and critical investigations of future observers will probably suggest many more: yet among the rare publications which deserve to be carefully consulted by the student of cryptogamous vegetation, the *Nereis Britannica* must ever hold a distinguished rank, and reflect eminent credit on the perseverance and ingenuity of its author. Muir.

BIOGRAPHY, &c.

Art. 14. *Scriptural Biography*; or the Lives and Characters of the principal Personages recorded in the Sacred Writings, practically adapted to the Instruction of Youth and private Families. By John Watkins, L.L.D. 12mo. pp. 497. 4s. 6d. Boards. R. Phillips.

This author is known to the world by former publications *: the present, though not free from faults and objections, is agreeable and instructive. Some of the narrations are more pleasantly and better written than others: but all, though systematic opinion may occasionally cast some obscurity, exhibit useful and impressive remarks and admonitions. 'In a *moral* sense alone,' observes Dr. Watkins, 'the Scripture characters are the most proper that can be presented for our imitation, because they are represented as they truly were, without any design of extenuating their errors or exaggerating their virtues. No art is made use of to exhibit them to us to the best advantage; they are shewn in their native simplicity, in a great variety of natural situations, and exactly "as men of like passions with ourselves."—No doubt this observation is just.—He proceeds to remark, 'Morality may be serviceable to us in our connections with one another as members of society; but it can neither open nor maintain a communication with heaven.'—This also is true; if we understand by morality a mere exterior decorum, destitute of those principles of

* See Rev. vol. xxxviii. N. S. p. 219.

truth and piety on which they are founded in the Scriptures: but there is no subject, perhaps, on which writers more frequently mistake each other's ideas, or do not clearly deliver their own.

In some few instances, (we wish that they were more numerous,) this author endeavours to alleviate, if not remove, the difficulties which naturally occur in writings of such high antiquity. Thus, in the history of Joseph, he attempts to take off the charge brought against that respectable character, as having in one part of his life promoted tyranny and slavery;—after other remarks, he adds, 'We behold here, then, a sagacious and truly benevolent line of conduct, instead of a cruel and unjust one. By his superior wisdom, the seven years of famine were provided against; and, by laying the Egyptians under the necessity of selling their lands, he obtained that power which enabled him to render the country more fruitful than it ever had been, or indeed would be, if the inhabitants were not in a manner forced to an agricultural life. But Joseph made no undue advantage of the people's necessities; for, though they exchanged all their possessions, and even their liberty, for corn, he reserved only a fifth part of the land for Pharaoh, who was before the owner of the tenth of the whole, except the portion which belonged to the priests.'

We might quote other examples of judicious and practical remarks, which stamp a value on this publication: but we are unwillingly constrained to add that there are other parts which, in our apprehension, detract from its merit. Respecting sentiment, each person is at liberty to use his own judgment, with modesty and sincerity. What is generally termed *orthodoxy* pervades this volume, and the phraseology which it occasions may render the style not always so perfectly acceptable. The meditations of the venerable and worthy Bishop Hall may possibly lead the reader somewhat astray in this and other respects. Supposed types and emblems prove often dangerous and pernicious interpreters of the sacred writings: what they themselves authorize and clearly assert, it is our duty to receive: but it is our business to guard against the vagaries of a deceiving fancy; and this author expresses himself unwilling to allegorize, or spiritualize 'all objects, institutions, and circumstances mentioned in the Bible.' Notwithstanding, it is at least questionable whether he does not pass beyond his line, and imagine characters to be typical, where the Scriptures do not justify such a conclusion; the same may be said concerning the book of Psalms; respecting which, we suppose, he is a follower of the late Dr. Horne. We take leave of the volume without mentioning farther exceptions; and, though we wish the above remarks to be regarded, we hope and believe that the work will prove interesting and beneficial. Hi.

LAW.

Art. 15. *The Trial of Edward Marcus Despard, Esq. for High Treason*, at the Session House, Newington, Surrey, 7th February 1803. Taken in Short-hand by Joseph Gurney and William Brodie Gurney. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Gurney. 1803.

All the circumstances in which this trial originated, as well as the event of it, are so well known to our readers that we need not enlarge on

on the subject.—The particulars are here faithfully reported; and the impressive and energetic language, in which Lord Ellenborough passed sentence on the unhappy deluded convicts, is accurately preserved. To this sentence, may not improperly be applied the words of Statius:

——"*Grave et immutabile sanctis*
Pondus adest verbis, et vocem Fata sequuntur." S.R.

Art. 16. *The Trial of Wm. Codling, Mariner; John Reid, Mariner; Wm. Macfarlane, Merchant; and George Easterby, Merchant*; for wilfully and feloniously destroying and casting away the Brig *Adventure*, on the High Seas, within the Jurisdiction of the Admiralty of England; at a Session of Oyer and Terminer and Gaol-Delivery for the Admiralty of England, held at Justice Hall in the Old Bailey, 26th October 1802. Taken in Short-hand by Joseph Gurney and Wm. Brodie Gurney. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Gurney. 1803.

The usual accuracy of Mr. Gurney's Reports appears in this volume, which is printed uniformly with his late publications of important trials. To the record of the objection taken by the counsel of Messrs. Macfarlane and Easterby, as contained in the proceedings on the trial, that they had committed no act *on the high seas*, and consequently were not answerable to that court before which they were arraigned, Mr. Gurney has added a copy of His Majesty's pardon, granted to those persons, which was founded on the doubts thus arising, and was issued on the 3d of May last. G.2.

EDUCATION.

Art. 17. *The Parent's Friend;* or Extracts from the principal Works on Education, from the Time of Montaigne to the present Day, methodized and arranged. With Observations and Notes by the Editor. 8vo. 2 Vols. 14s. Boards. Johnson.

Treatises on the subject of Education have multiplied to so great an extent, that it can scarcely be expected of parents in general, that they should consult such a variety of monitors on the duty which they owe to their children. A judicious compilation, therefore, from these numerous works, may furnish an useful epitome, and be productive of much benefit. The publication here announced is a collection of materials of this kind, from upwards of 40 different authors; many of them eminent writers; and others from whom valuable hints may be occasionally drawn. The editor has added but few observations from his own pen, and those are of no particular importance.

A general index is subjoined, which will be found of much use in pointing out the immediate subject of reference; and prefixed is a list of the authors from whom extracts are made or translated: but it would have been more convenient to the reader, if their respective names had been attached to each quotation.

It must be remembered that this work is intended for the use of parents, not for the study of young people themselves: for whom it is not in all respects calculated; especially in chapter xii. of Vol. I. Man.S.

Art. 18. *Ingénue de Logecour : ou le Triomphe de l'Honneur persecuté.* *Par M.* Marsan de Thou. 8vo. sewed. Dulau and Co.

This moral tale is dedicated by the author to his fair pupils, and is principally intended for their use and instruction. The heroine is the amiable daughter of M. de Logecour, whose imprudence and prodigality had reduced him to abject distress; when, by the seasonable kindness of the Baron de Gondrin, he is enabled, in a Welsh retreat, to repair his ruined fortunes, and return to a sense of duty and honour. Here, however, death terminates his prospects; and Ingénue, persecuted by her mother and elder sister, seeks an asylum and support by becoming governess in different families. At length, on the death of the duchess d'Eristelle, Ingénue is selected by the Duke as his second bride.—The tale is simple, and probably will be found sufficiently interesting to engage the pupil's attention. The moral sentiments interspersed are just and appropriate; and the vindication of the character of Governess will probably secure for the author the esteem of that class of his female readers.

Several grammatical errors occur, besides those which are pointed out in the list of errata. They have been corrected in the copy which we have perused, and ought to be marked before the volume is put into the hands of youth, for their improvement in the French language. Man.

POLITICS.

Art. 19. *Official Papers, relative to the Preliminaries of London and the Treaty of Amiens.* Published at Paris by the Authority of the French Government. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Debrett.

Art. 20. *Correspondence between Great Britain and France, &c. &c.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stockdale.

This mass of Diplomatic Papers, published by the two Governments, will serve to shew that the Treaty of Amiens consisted of "Hollow smiles proclaiming treacherous peace;" that it was, as Governor Pownall lately remarked, only *a lull in the storm;* and that war was smothered but not extinguished by these forms and professions of amity. As lovers of peace, we read these papers with concern. The sword is again unsheathed; and how long its bloody work will continue, it is impossible for us to conjecture. It would be some consolation, on the renewal of the conflict, could we be encouraged to hope that it would be short; and that it would terminate, not in another Treaty of Amiens, but in arrangements productive of lasting tranquillity. Mo-y.

Art. 21. *The Substance of the Speech of the Right Hon. William Pitt,* in the House of Commons, May 23, 1803, on the Debate on the War. 8vo. 1s. Nicol.

The Speech of Mr. Pitt, in the Debate of May 23, was not given in the public prints, in consequence of the reporters having been accidentally excluded from the gallery of the House of Commons. This pamphlet professes, in some measure, to supply the deficiency; but we know not the source from which it originates, as its publication is not stated to be sanctioned by Mr. Pitt, or any of his friends. D.°

Art.

Art. 22. *A Vindication of the Cause of Great Britain*; with Strictures on the insolent and perfidious Conduct of France, since the Signature of the Preliminaries of Peace. By William Hunter, Esq. of the Inner Temple. 8vo. 2s. Stockdale.

Mr. Hunter here takes a review of His Majesty's Declaration, in which the conduct of the French Government since the Peace is reprobated; and our appeal to arms is justified. The author is so indignant against Bonaparte, that he is transported in his Philippic beyond the bounds of moderation; asserting that 'the influence of his policy seems to embrace and pervade the system of animated nature.' All Europe is aware of his restless ambition, and of his unfriendly purposes towards this country: but, when so much is at stake, we would recommend dignified discussion and not petulant declamation, in every debate and indeed in every pamphlet. Mr. H. is of opinion that it is fortunate for this country that the late tedious correspondence between Great Britain and France has terminated as it has done; and that the ensuing year will decide our destiny for ages. If he inclines to censure our Ministers, his objection is that they have been too meek and submissive to the First Consul; to whom, instead of generosity, we should have manifested an inflexible firmness: resisting in the very outset every appearance of insolence, and every encroachment, with as lofty a spirit as his own. Mo.y.

Art. 23. *Reflections on the Causes of the present Rupture with France.* By John Adolphus, Esq. 8vo. pp. 185. 3s. 6d. Hatchard.

We have here a more detailed examination of the various circumstances of irritation, which occurred between the two countries from the period of the Treaty of Amiens to the return of Lord Whitworth from Paris, than is to be found in Mr. Hunter's pamphlet. Mr. Adolphus particularly notices the newspaper-war which has been so instrumental in fomenting enmity, and thus, before the ashes of the last war could be cold, re-kindling the destructive flame. Passages from the *Moniteur* are quoted in proof of French acrimony; and we should be happy if no extracts could be adduced from our public prints to be opposed to them. Mr. A. observes that 'our best allies have never been defended from the licence of *parliamentary* animadversion.' True: but have they not uniformly been defended from the licence of *newspaper* writers; and have we, when the French government was on terms of amity with us, always acted on this principle? Mr. A. justly observes that 'the English Journalists treated with most unreserved asperity the proceedings of the French government.'

On the subject of Malta, it is observed; 'Vain must be the endeavours of France to make it believed that England voluntarily engaged in war to gain a title to Malta; it must be obvious to every one, that she was desirous only to control operations avowedly meditated against Egypt, and to preserve that which has ever been considered, by domestic politicians and envious rival nations, one of the most important adjuncts to the British empire, the territories in India.'

The result of these reflections on the causes of the war is, that we should have been pusillanimous and abject if we had allowed France

to have persevered in her insults and aggressions. Mr. A. considers the peace, though short, to have been advantageous, as it operated to the extinction of party feuds; and he congratulates the country on meeting the present war with a firm, upright, dignified appearance of public spirit. Moy.

Art. 24. *The Times considered*; or a Brief View of the General Cause of the Decline of Empires. Humbly inscribed to the Right Hon. the Earl of Moira. By Henry White. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ridgway.

No individual, we are persuaded, will accuse Mr. White of either spleen or invective, when he asserts 'that there is something particularly alarming in the present conjuncture.' The fact is admitted: but how came we into this situation? and how are we to get out of it? are the questions to be considered. Mr. W. attributes our misfortunes to a venal and corrupt administration; to the exclusion of the most eminent and distinguished characters from all political power; to the universal servility which the wide diffusion of court-influence has occasioned; and to the great decay and almost destruction of the Whig interest, under which this country can alone flourish.

The remedy here prescribed is Reform; and till this takes place, we are assured by Mr. W., confusion and weakness will prevail. 'France,' says he, 'knows the state of parties, under which England is tottering, that there is no unity or co-operation, and that nothing can be done by common counsel in the nation.' If such has been the aspect of our politics, it is time that it should undergo a change. With such an enemy as we have to oppose, we ought to remember the old adage relative to a *house divided against itself.*

Mr. W.'s remarks, which were offered to the public before the renewal of the war, deprecate a patched-up peace, and recommend the transfer of the helm of state to abler hands than those of our present ministers, as a necessary step to prevent inevitable ruin. Do

Art. 25. *Essays on the Population of Ireland and the Characters of the Irish.* By a Member of the last Irish Parliament. 8vo. 2s. C. and R. Baldwin.

Ireland, enjoying a climate singularly salubrious, might be expected under other favouring circumstances to advance in population: but we hesitate in admitting the assertion of this political arithmetician, that, before the expiration of twenty years, it will contain a more dense population than any other country in Europe. It is stated that, at the beginning of the last century, the inhabitants of this part of the United Kingdom amounted to about one million; that, from this period, they have increased one-fifth, or thereabouts, every eleven years; and that in 1799, they were 5,157,769. It is taken as granted that the population of Ireland must continue to advance; and when it shall have reached 7,000,000, (which, we are told, will probably be the case about the time when the whole of the United Kingdom shall be placed on a proportionably equal footing with respect to taxes and contributions,) that of England will not in all

likelihood exceed 10,000,000:—'a circumstance (adds the author) which I am inclined to suspect did entirely escape the notice of those who were concerned in framing the Act of Union.' When the proportion between the population of Ireland and that of England shall be only as 7 to 10, the representation of Ireland may undergo some amendment: but we see no just reason for reflecting on the framers of the Act of Union, that they did not presume on that vast augmentation of the inhabitants of Ireland, which this writer lays down as an indisputable doctrine.

The Church of Rome, it is here said, includes within its pale four-fifths of the population of Ireland.

In a subsequent Essay, the characters of the lower, middle, and upper classes of the Irish are sketched, and vindicated against the aspersions of the ignorant and the prejudiced. The author will not allow that the great body of the community is radically bad, but contends that it displays those qualities which prove that, under the culture and fostering hand of Government, these ranks are capable of becoming 'as useful citizens and as valuable subjects as any upon the face of the earth.' The middle class is represented as greatly ameliorated. 'Duelling, once so remarkably prevalent in this class, has almost ceased, and drunkenness is no longer a common vice.'—An encomium is passed on the qualities of the upper rank; among whom the chief faults which prevail, but with many exceptions, are said to be venality, and a want of public spirit. Throughout all the classes, hospitality, urbanity, confidence, and vivacity, are predominant.

May the Irish be solicitous to improve themselves, and may complete justice be done to them as subjects of the United Empire! Mo-y.

Art. 26. *An Obstacle to the Ambition of France*; or Thoughts on the Expediency of improving the Political Condition of His Majesty's Irish Roman Catholic Subjects. By Thomas Newenham, Esq. late M.P. for Clonmell. 8vo. 1s. 6d. C. and R. Baldwin.

With a just appreciation of the importance of national unanimity, Mr. Newenham wisely recommends the identification of the political rights of the Catholics and Protestants of Ireland, and ably answers the several objections which have been urged at different times against this measure. He observes that the natural consequence, which has arisen and must arise from withholding civil rights, is disaffection to the Government in the mind of the proscribed party; and he contends for an equal participation of them among Catholics and Protestants, as an effectual cure for all existing discontents in the former, as well as the surest means of consolidating the strength of the empire, and of enabling the United Kingdom to display the whole of its native vigour, undiminished by the enervating influence of party. Our present situation certainly requires unanimity; and, as it is the interest of Government to promote it, those principles of enlightened policy ought to be adopted, which tend to unite the abilities, the affections, and the strength of the state, in order that the whole may act against its enemies with an irresistible momentum.

This is a well-written and sensible pamphlet. D.o

POETIC

POETIC *and* DRAMATIC.

Art. 27. *The Soldiers*, an Historical Poem, in three Parts. Containing an Epitome of the Wars entered into by Great Britain, from the Year 1739 to the present Time. By R. Farmer. Part I. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Lackington and Co.

In a series of artless stanzas, an old campaigner is here supposed to tell his story of battles fought in every part of the globe. He does not, like the epic poet, aim at representing the events which he records 'as glorious; but places them in a *moral*, rather than in a military point of view; not as a stimulus to ambition, but as a check to the rage for conquest, which has ever been a scourge to mankind, and, sooner or later, becomes the bane of every overbearing state.' Animated by so laudable a design, Mr. F. is intitled to the critic's indulgence: but we should have been better pleased, had the exercise of this indulgence been less necessary on the present occasion. We do not perceive the fitness of introducing the Heathen mythology in an account of the wars of the 18th century of the Christian era, nor the *moral* tendency of the first of the following stanzas:

'Next to Flanders I was order'd—
'Camp'd at Deighton for a while—
Talk'd of whores and dogs and horses—
Play'd at cards, and liv'd in style.

'Then to Dettingen we marched—
Fought 'neath George the Second's care,
And obtain'd a wreath of triumph
That e'en George might deign to wear.

'Next, ah me! I well remember
Fontenoy s empurpled field,
William fought, but what avail'd it?
Valour's self must sometimes yield.

'Long I had not to bethink me
Of what Soldiers undergo,
Ere at Pas du Mele surrounded,
Fate laid half my Comrades low.'

This first part carries us no farther than the deposition of the Rajah of Benares; after which, the old campaigner returns to England to wait his final doom.—Farewell. Mo-y.

Art. 28. *A Dramatic Dialogue between an English Sailor and a Frenchman.* By I. S. Munnings. 8vo. 1s. 6d. C. and R. Baldwin.

The scene of this dialogue is laid in a street in London, and the interlocutors speak in perfect character; *save and except* that the English Tar *keeps up a constant fire* on the Frenchman in much better verse than suits his jacket.

As this piece is loyal, patriotic, and adapted to the times, we transcribe a portion of the dialogue for the gratification of our readers;

'*French*. Ah! if me be now tin, me soon grow fat,
Vid equal rights, and freedom, and all dat.

'*Sail*. What, fatten on French freedom! you might sooner
Bring to a British first-rate with a schooner.

Your

Your d—mn'd French freedom, Mounseer, is all froth,
With too much cooking you have spoil'd the broth:
For all the world 'tis like soup-meagre meat,
Stew'd down till nothing good is left to eat;
But British Freedom is, you lean-fac'd thief,
Pleasant as grog, yet solid as our beef.
'*French.* Vate'er our freedom be, Monsieur, you grant
En France de tree of liberty ve plant.
'*Sail.* *Your* tree of liberty! A pretty joke—
The tree of liberty is British Oak;*
Taunt as a first-rate's mast, its branches shoot,
Sound is its trunk, and firmly fix'd its root.
The Sons of Freedom gather round to watch it,
And from its trunk to keep your d—mn'd French hatchet.
When dangers threaten, and loud storms invade,
We'll find a harbour underneath its shade.
'*French.* Dat harbour ve'll destroy; for if our fleet
De British Navy ever chance to meet,
As ve on land do gain de victory,
De Grand Nation shall beat you on de sea.
'*Sail.* Beat Britons! Mounseer, sing another tune,
And, trembling, recollect the FIRST OF JUNE.
The FIRST OF JUNE my soul with warmth inspires,
Methinks I hear our vessels' thund'ring fires!
See HOWE, resolv'd to conquer or to die,
From stem to stern with British ardor fly,
Break thro' the line of you poor coward slaves,
And sing in triumph "Britons rule the waves."
'*French.* Dat vas von accident——
'*Sail.* What will you say
To NELSON'S victory in ABOUKIR bay;
When fir'd with glory, with true courage warm,
On BRUEYS'S ships he pour'd the battle's storm,
Around the fleet the flames of ruin spread,
And half the crew was number'd with the dead;
The rest, sad-floating on the blood-stain'd waves,
Whom conquest had subdued—our pity saves.
'*French.* Begar, you change your note ven here you see
De fifty tousan caps of liberty.
'*Sail.* O split my timbers, land 'em, but mayhaps
There's ne'er a British head will fit your caps.
'*French.* Ve fit dem on, for vid de sail unfurl'd,
Ve send de cap of freedom rounde de vorld.
'*Sail.* D—mme, *you* venture round the world, Mounseer!
Why, you've no pilot at the helm to steer.

'* This line was written and published in the year 1794; and therefore could not be borrowed from Mr. Fitzgerald's production from which an Extract follows:—

——— in thunder spoke,
"The tree of Freedom is the British Oak."

Your

Your crazy bark of state has too much sail,
And, torn from anchor, drives before the gale:
Ours, tight and trim, defies the threat'ning blast,
And safe in well-built strength will ever last
Queen of the waves; to distant climes will rove,
Whilst the helm's guided by a King we love.
'*French.* You love de King, vous bête, you no be free.
Dere be no King, mais Consul in Paris.
And if de Grande Nation shall seulement frown,
De Ingleesh King vil tremble on his trone.
'*Sail.* Shiver my hulk! d—mme, what do I hear!
My King insulted! ho, avast, Mounseer,
I'll rub you well with this oak towel here.
[*Drives the Frenchman off.*
'*Returns.*
'Split my old timbers, 'tis in vain to chase,
These French dogs always beat us at a race.
D—mme, his sails are now quite out of view,
So I will e'en steer home, and comfort Sue.
'*Going, returns.*
'Avast though, since this Consul threatens war,
Once list ye landsmen to an honest tar;
Let's cease disputes, and join with heart and hand
To bang these Mounseers both by sea and land.
Shall free-born souls, who've always rul'd the waves,
Be made to lower their flags, and strike to slaves,
Lose all the comfort of their beef and grog,
Starve on soup-meagre, or devour a frog?
No, let's preserve our birthright; still be free;
Still let's maintain THE EMPIRE OF THE SEA;
Steer where the conquering Van, ST. VINCENT, leads,
Where DUNCAN conquers, and where NELSON bleeds;
Act like true sailors, fight, drink, laugh, and sing,
True to our Rights, and faithful to our King. [*Exit.*'

Mr. Munnings's motive, in the publication of this dramatic trifle, is to excite the zeal of Britons in vigorously resisting an enemy who aims at the destruction of the independence of their country. Mo-y.

Art. 29. *The Sacred Meditations* of John Gerhard, translated into Blank Verse by W. Papillon, Clerk, M. A. of University College, Oxford. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Egerton.

We think with Dr. Johnson, that *poetical* devotion (strictly speaking) cannot be gratifying to correct taste. The truths of revelation cannot be amplified by human invention, nor can the attributes of the Divine Being be illustrated by figurative diction. Religious sentiments, as in the Psalms of David, may be given in rhythm, or, as in the English translations of them, may be clothed in metre or rhyme, for the sake of being set to music or sung: but they ought not to be mixed with extravagant flights of fancy, nor be polluted with language which is appropriated to carnal passion. Pictures of the future state, drawn and coloured from the imagination, cannot assist

assist our conceptions of "*things unspeakable;*" nor can Watts's "carving his passion on the bark" convey a proper idea of the kind of love which is due from sinners to Christ. We think that prose is better calculated for Sacred Meditation than rhyme, or even than blank verse; and the work before us affords no reason for relinquishing this opinion. In the first Meditation, *on Confession of Sin*, can any peculiar edification be derived from the following sentiments and expressions being given in blank verse? (*blank enough!*)

'Our righteousness is all but filthy rags;
If such our righteousness, what our misdeeds?
Our Lord exhorts us humbly to declare
Ourselves without deserving, profitless.
If then no merit is ours when we obey,
How vile in disobedience are we found?"

Or in the subsequent passage from the Meditation *on the Mysteries of the Incarnation?*

——'His birth is derived
Pure from a Virgin's womb: by emblem just
To shew that He, by the Spirit, is not born
Save only in virgin souls, such as the world,
Satan, and the flesh renouncing, cleave to God.
To sanctify our birth contaminate,
Christ of a Virgin, when betroth'd, is born,
That honour meet to marriage might be shewn,
First ordinance of God to man.'——

Or in the following from the Meditations on *the Eternal Doom?*

'Ponder, my soul, the eternity of pain
The damn'd endure, and fly their rigorous doom!
There, in the infernal lake, the liquid fire
Spreads ever boundless, and for ever burns.
Their *life* who live *there* is evermore to die!—
So do the damn'd, its populous spawn, die *there*
As still to exist, and still exist to die!'

These passages will speak for themselves. Mr. Papillon apologizes for many prosaic lines, (and many there are that require an apology,) which he attributes to his great respect for the passages of scripture introduced. Had this respect operated as it ought to have done, he would have contented himself with being the prose translator of Gerhard.

Mo-y.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 30. *Considerations on the Laws of Honour:* occasioned chiefly by a late melancholy Event. By a Military Gentleman. 8vo. 1s. Ginger.

This pamphlet is dedicated to Mr. Heaviside, and is apparently drawn up with a view to the vindication of his conduct, in the late melancholy duel between Colonel Montgomery and Captain Macnamara. 'The prosecution of a surgeon, (says this writer,) who attends the parties to the field, needs no comment: every man of honour must revolt at it.' We regard this as a very loose and unsatisfactory mode of stating the case. It would be cruel in the extreme to refuse surgical assistance to those who are wounded in duels: but

but when surgeons professedly attend duellists to the ground appointed for the conflict, they place themselves in the situation of seconds, and are accessary to the consequences.

As surgeons, according to this writer, ought to make a part of the procession to the field of honour; so the *tournament*, the duel, ought to be an allowed privilege of gentlemen, since to banish this defence of honour is to banish honour itself. The loss to the state by this *indulgence of honourable feelings* is represented as very inconsiderable, while the benefit to the community, by keeping the rest in order, is very great. 'On an average of twenty-one years, the number that have fallen in duels do not amount to more than one in a million; the number of duels fought, not two; and the number of challenges sent, not four.' After this calculation, what is to be said against duelling?' 'The ladies who are burnt to death by wearing muslin dresses, exceed double this number; yet no one ever thought of making a law to prevent wearing them.' How completely alike are the two cases!

This military gentleman, however, will not merely be celebrated for his talent in the art of persuasion, but for his discoveries. We do not allude to his having found out that Ulysses fell before the walls of Troy, but to the following observation: 'Courage and the means of defence were given to man, in common with every thing in nature, animal, vegetable, or mineral.' Philosophers have speculated themselves into poets on the enjoyments of vegetables: but, till this moment, we never heard of the courage of a stone, nor suspected the possibility that there should be a law of honour among minerals. Mo.y.

Art. 31. *Observations founded on Facts upon the Propriety or Impropriety of exporting Cotton Twist for the Purpose of being manufactured into Cloth by Foreigners.* By George Walker. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

We conclude that this author does not mean to be literally understood, when he asserts that the press has *groaned* with pamphlets, letters, and papers, on the subject of cotton-twist: but, if this has been actually the case, we are happy to think that this groaning has not disturbed us. Not that we mean to insinuate that the matter in discussion is not important, for it certainly is, but that it does not admit of a protracted controversy. The merits of the question, as the lawyers say, lie in a nutshell. Foreigners, apprized of the superior quality of our cotton yarn, are anxious to obtain it at any price. Shall we allow them to have it; or shall we engross to ourselves not only the spinning but the manufacturing also of cotton goods? The answer is obvious. By exporting twist as we now do, (it is here contended,) we give an advantage to Foreigners, and aim a deadly blow at the British Cotton-trade, which it is an object of importance to this country to retain. To the state, therefore, it is recommended to obstruct the exportation of twist by imposing duties, if not absolutely to prohibit it.—The controversy on this subject rests between the spinner and the manufacturer of piece-goods; and with them we leave it, having no wish either to *twist* or to *weave* our opinions into the debate. Mo.y.

Art. 32. *Observations on Beer and Brewers*; in which the Inequality, Injustice, and Impolicy, of the Malt and Beer Tax are demonstrated. By Richard Flower. 8vo. 1s. Crosby and Co.

Oppressed as this country necessarily is by heavy imposts, it is almost impossible to lay on a tax against which objections cannot be urged. Mr. Flower undertakes to shew in what respects the malt and beer tax must be injurious in its operation; and he vindicates himself and his brethren in the brewery from accusations which have been levelled against them, on account of the high price of the common beverage of the English working poor.

Mo-y.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 33. *Delivered before the New-York Missionary Society*, at their Annual Meeting, April 6, 1802. By Samuel Miller, A. M. To which are added, The annual Report of the Directors, and other Papers relating to American Missions. 8vo. pp. 81. Printed at New-York. 1802.

This is a discourse of unusual length, and, considered as a pulpit declamation, it possesses some merit: but the preacher traverses ground repeatedly trodden, and employs a kind of reasoning on the subject of prophecy, which is already to be found in the writings of our able English divines. Mr. Miller's object is to explain the gradual operations of Providence in the fulfilment of the divine predictions, and to reprove the precipitancy of human expectations respecting their accomplishment. He contends that, as prophecy was not designed to make us prophets, we should not be hasty in our interpretation of it, but patiently wait till events unequivocally explain the purposes of Heaven. Yet, though he cautions his hearers against deciding in the dark on the subject of the prophecies, and details the slow progress of divine operations, he exhorts them to Christian activity, and applies his doctrine to the encouragement of the plans and exertions of the Missionary Society. This argument, however, is not quite correct. If man is to be *a worker together with God*, he should accommodate his measures to the divine plan of operation. Mr. M. may congratulate the Missionary Society on their success among the Savages, but it appears to us to be more imaginary than real. Christian knowlege presupposes civilization; and it may be fairly questioned whether attempts to make converts to Christianity, prior to the existence of civilization, be not a species of intemperate haste, which is discountenanced by all the operations of Providence respecting the progress of the Gospel. Missions to Otaheiteans or to North-American Savages may be countenanced by good, but (we think) not by wise men. Mr. Miller's premises are unfortunately at war with his conclusions.

Mo-y.

Art. 34. *Preached at Saint Andrew's Church, Plymouth, October* 12, 1802, before the Gentlemen educated at the Plymouth Grammar-School. By J. Bidlake, Master of the School. Together with an Oration, delivered in the Guild-hall on the same Day. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Murray and Co.

Mr. Bidlake has received sufficient attestations of respect both to himself and his publication, in those numerous lists of names which, we

are

are informed, were voluntarily left for copies with the booksellers of Plymouth.—The union of learning and religion is the subject of the sermon; and the oration is employed principally on the importance of grammar and classical instruction. The author's observations are sensible and ingenious, and attended with many pious and moral reflections. As to the necessity of Latin and Greek learning, many will dissent; while at the same time they may acknowlege the justice of Shakspeare's lines,

——"Ignorance is the curse of God;
Knowlege the wing wherewith we fly to heaven *."

Hi.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We are obliged to the writer of a letter signed *Penelope*, whether Male or Female: though we had been long ago informed by our wives that *Patent Lace* was not real lace, but a manufacture woven in a loom. We do not think, however, that the imposition at Paris of this English Patent Lace for genuine *French Lace* † is so much a proof of the superiority of English art, as of the ignorance and carelessness of the buyer. How often, on our own coast, are the manufactures of Spital Fields sold for genuine India handkerchiefs smuggled; and yet no one adduces these frauds as proofs of the superiority of the former over the latter.

Mo.y.

In a second letter from B. G. relative to our account of Dr. Disney's Reformed Liturgy, (see Rev. for January last,) this correspondent has obligingly transcribed a passage from the Doctor's preface, which substantiates his assertion that we had fallen into an error.—Relying on his fidelity, we insert the passage which states Dr. Disney's edition of the Psalms to be entire:

"In consideration of the difficulty of meeting the expectation of different persons with respect to the omission of certain psalms, which least accord with the mild and forgiving spirit of the Gospel, he [the editor] has thought it would be more satisfactory to the reader to have the whole before him, and be left to reject the use of any particular psalm at pleasure, than to be prevented the perusal by the opinion of another."

Do

Mr. Anstie's letter is received, but it was not in our power to comply with his request in this Number of our Review.

☞ In the last Appendix, P. 472. l. 7. from bott. for 'Ireland,' r. *Iceland*.—P. 475. l. 9. for 'Ricelli,' r. *Uccelli*.—P. 488. l. 10. for 'present,' r. *parent*.—P. 490. l. 3. for '14,000,' r. 14,000,000.—P. 508. l. 27. for 'being,' r. *to be*; and l. 31. for 'clamations,' r. *exclamations*.—P. 537. title of Art. XV. for '*rendré*,' r. *rendue*.—P. 538. l. 1. for 'existence which,' r. *existence of which*.

In the No. for May, P. 6. l 22. for 'restleness,' r. *restlessness*.—P. 8. l 4. after 'was,' add, *designed*.—P. 86. l. 23. dele '*he*.'—P. 90. l. 14. dele the words, '*the noise made by*.'

* Henry 6th, 2d Part.

† See Rev. for December last, p. 422.

Errors, pp. 127, 138, 149, 195, 212, 222.